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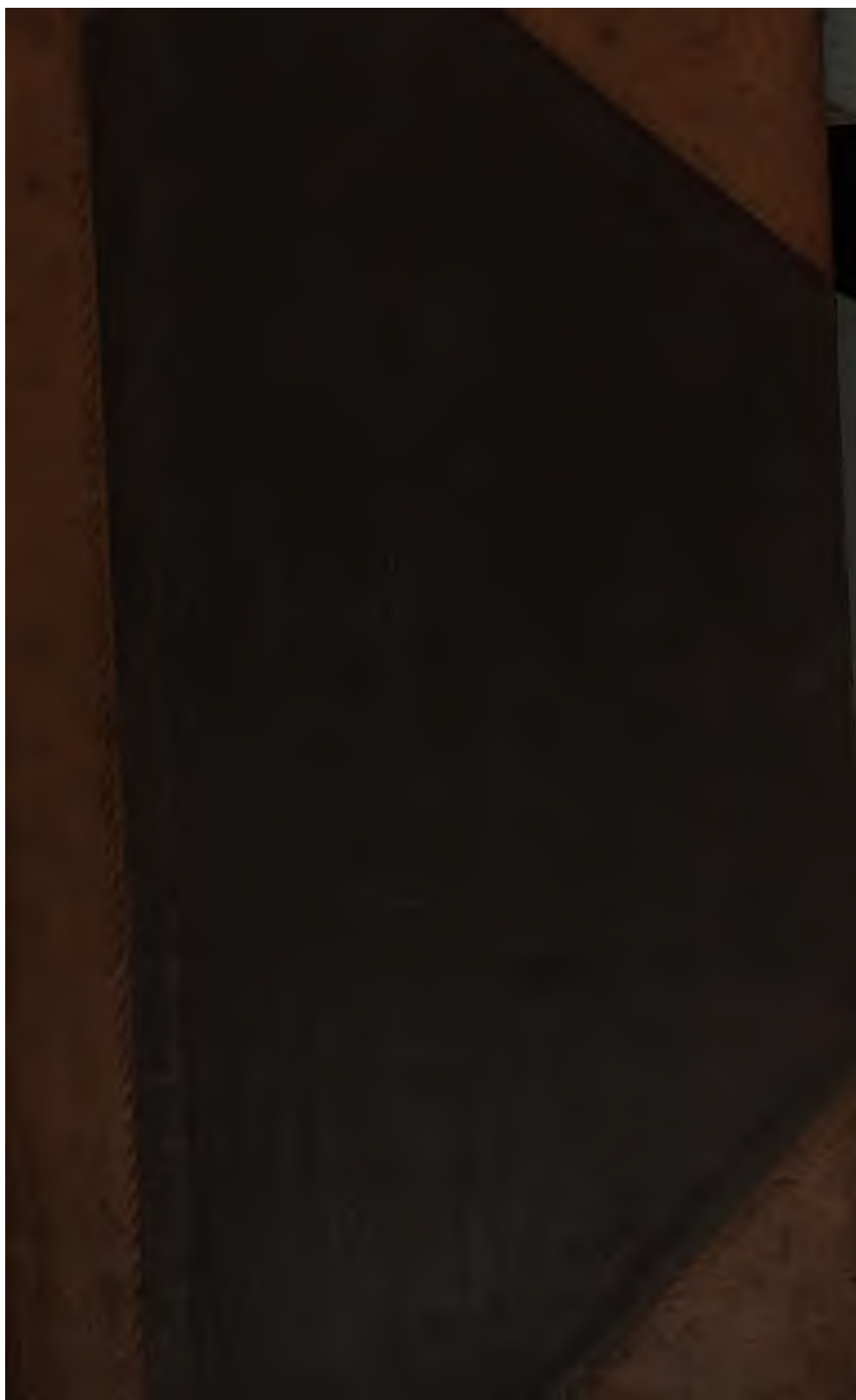
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OF
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NOTICE.

THE Council of the Statistical Society of London wish it to be understood, that, while they consider it their duty to adopt every means within their power to test the facts inserted in this Journal, they do not hold themselves responsible for their accuracy, which must rest upon the authority of the several Contributors.

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E R R A T A.

- Page 88 line 1—*for* "principal" *read* "municipal."
- ,, 88 ,, 8—*for* "investigation" *read* "inquiry."
- ,, 132 ,, 2 from the bottom—*for* "governments" *read* "government."
- ,, 231 ,, 7—*for* "April" *read* "June."
- ,, 231 ,, 22—after "during each month," *omit* all the words following, and *read* "of the same period, and during the quarter ended Midsummer, 1842."
- ,, 231—Table of the Prices of Corn, in the fourth column, after the date when the new duties came into operation, are inserted the duties gazetted as having been actually paid, in each week of the months of May and June; but all the earlier entries being of the duties which the averages of the six weeks preceding dictate shall for the future be paid, this later portion of the Table is repeated, with entries, in like manner, of the future duties, at p. 310.
- ,, 233—Table of Bank Liabilities and Assets, first column, 1841—before "June" *read* "22nd."

QUARTERLY JOURNAL
OF THE
STATISTICAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.

APRIL, 1842.

Report on General Education, Superior, Secondary, and Primary, in France. By the Rev. H. L. JONES, M.A., late Fellow of Magdalene College, Cambridge. Communicated by the Statistical Society of Manchester.

THE state of general education in France, like the condition of the political and social systems of that country, is so different from what exists in England, that a comparison between the two kingdoms in this respect is difficult to be drawn. In France the spirit of the nation is democratic in the highest degree, the forms of the charter or constitution are monarchical, and yet the actual administrative government of the country is an almost unmixed military despotism, arbitrary and nearly irresponsible. In the same way the spirit of the educational system is one of perfect openness and equality, and yet it is under the direct and absolute control of a practically irresponsible functionary, who wields the staff of Grand Master of the University with unchecked authority in virtue of his functions as Minister of Public Instruction. The aristocratic and clerical elements of educational institutions have totally disappeared, in the same way as they have arrived at virtual nullity in the system of the state; the old institutions and forms of proceeding, as far as education is concerned, have all been swept away and remodelled, and all the various universities and colleges of the country have been united into one uniform system.* The general plan of education in France is one of essentially a lay nature, a separate branch of it being reserved for ecclesiastics, another for military, and a third for naval pupils; ecclesiastics have as little as possible to do with what is termed the "University," not merely because they are not encouraged, but because they dislike it; and there is a perfect absence in the system of all religious distinctions. The main faults of the system are that it is too uniform, and not sufficiently well adapted to the wants of the nation, from its not paying sufficient regard to local interests and local ideas; that the different branches of French society, civil, ecclesiastical, and military, are not enough amalgamated; and that it is too much under the control of the Government for its superior officers ever to act with spirit and independence. On the other hand it is so far in harmony with the condition of French society that it gives a certain degree of education, and that too of considerable value, to all who like to apply

* See vol. iv. part 1 of the Quarterly Journal of the Statistical Society of London, p. 50.

for it, on cheap and favourable terms; that it places education of various degrees within the reach of almost all who are likely to profit by it; and that by the despotic administration of its democratic constitution it is suited to the anomalous condition of the nation in general.

Whether superior education be carried to a higher pitch in France under the present system than it would have been under the old plan, had that plan continued to exist to the present day, is equally problematical with the question whether the French nation is now better governed than it would have been had the *ancien regime* been allowed to exist, and to modify itself according to the increased intelligence of later times. The fact, however, is, that the system works tolerably well in most points, and in some is productive beyond dispute of the most advantageous results; another point equally certain is, that it is highly approved of by the people for whom it is intended, and that by the majority of the French nation it is considered to have reached the utmost limits of perfection. Notwithstanding this excusable prejudice of national partiality, the system, especially the upper and the lower portions of it, is receiving improvements every day; and, should greater liberty of action be given to the various members of it at any future period, it may be expected to produce much more beneficial results.

The general system of education is briefly this. All the educational establishments of the country for civilians are formed into one united body called the University, under the supreme control of the Minister of Public Instruction. This University consists of several academies, established in the capital and the principal cities of France, each comprising one or more of the learned Faculties, or else a commission of Examination in Letters. In all the chief towns and considerable places of the departments (including the capital) there are established colleges, either royal or communal, (according as they are supported by the state or by the municipal authorities,) under the administrative direction of the academy within the jurisdiction of which they happen to be situated; in each department there are either *institutions* or *pensions* subordinate to the colleges; and for every department in France there is a system of primary or parochial instruction more or less extensively organized. The academies and their faculties come within the definition of establishments of superior instruction; the colleges, *institutions*, and *pensions* compose the class of secondary instruction; and the normal, primary, and infant schools, are included in the class of primary establishments.

The total number of academies in France is 27; of faculties 40, viz. 6 of Roman Catholic Theology; 1 of Lutheran Theology; 1 of Calvinistic Theology; 9 of Law; 3 of Medicine; 10 of Sciences; and 10 of Letters; of Secondary Schools of Medicine 18; of Commissions of Examination for the Baccalaureate in Letters 17; of Royal Colleges 44; of Communal Colleges 312; of Private Colleges (at Paris) 2; of *Institutions* 106; and of *Pensions* 991. The total number of functionaries of all classes in the University, (not including the teachers in primary schools, nor any females,) is rather under 6,000. There are no exact published returns of the numbers of students and pupils.

The Budget of the Minister of Public Instruction for 1842 is as follows :—

Budget of the Minister of Public Instruction for 1842, voted by the Chamber of Deputies in May 1841.

Chapters.	£.
I. Salaries of Central Administration	16,240
II. Other Expenses, ditto	4,624
III. Royal Council and Inspectors General	720
IV. General Service	12,536
V. Academic Administration	25,436
VI. Inspection of Primary Schools	16,000
VII. Superior Instruction	110,666
VIII. Secondary Instruction.*	79,720
IX. Primary Instruction (from general funds of the Budget)	80,000
X. Ditto (according to the sums voted by the Municipal Councils.)	157,200
XI. Ditto (granted on the Special Funds for Normal Schools.)	14,000
XII. The Institute	22,480
XIII. The Collège de France	6,481
XIV. The Museum of Natural History in the Garden of Plants, Paris	19,218
XV. Bureau des Longitudes	4,870
XVI. Bibliothèque Royale	11,440
XVII. Ditto Extraordinary Credit	4,200
XVIII. Salaries of Persons employed in Public Libraries	6,689
XIX. Various Establishments	4,704
XX. Subscriptions	6,000
XXI. Encouragements to Learned Men	10,800
XXII. Publication of Documents on National History	6,000
XXIII. Addition to Pensions	11,200
Total	<u>£631,226</u>

Minister of Public Instruction.—This officer is one of the principal functionaries of the French Government. He is, *ex officio*, Grand Master of the University, that is to say, chief of all educational establishments whatever in France; and he has in his appointment the nomination to all the principal posts connected with public instruction throughout the country. He has also supreme control over the courses of studies, and the subjects of them to be pursued in all colleges, schools, and faculties whatsoever; and he decides, as a last resort, upon all appeals from the jurisdiction of inferior authorities. He is assisted by a royal council of public instruction, comprising eight members, of which he is himself the president or chairman, and he consults this council on all acts connected with the administration of the University. Besides the persons employed in his ministerial department he is assisted by three committees; viz. the Committee of History, Charters, and Moral and Political Sciences; the Historical Committee of Sciences; and the Historical Committee of Arts and Monuments. The Minister of Public Instruction has a separate chapter of the general budget of the state to himself, and pays the salaries of the various functionaries and officers under his authority. All the libraries and the literary and scientific societies in the kingdom are under his control; as likewise the School of Charters attached to the Royal Library of Paris.

The administrative organization of this minister's department is as follows :—

* This is independent of the sums paid by the communes for the support of communal colleges.

(a) *The Secretariat*; consisting of a chief secretary: a bureau of registration for the reception, preparation, &c., of correspondence and documents: a bureau of proceedings and archives: and a librarian.

(b) 1st Division, for the superintendence of the persons engaged in establishments connected with the university, and for the administration of the same. It is under a director, and comprises two sections. The first section includes all establishments of superior and secondary instruction, and is divided into—a Bureau of Academic Appeals, which is for the nomination of academic functionaries, the regulation of their salaries, &c.; the allotment of bursarships, &c.: a Bureau of Faculties for the nomination of professors of faculties and secondary schools of medicine; the regulation of their salaries, &c., the subjects of lectures, &c.: and the Bureau of Colleges for the nomination of functionaries, professors, &c., in the same; the regulation of their salaries, course of lectures, &c. The second section includes all establishments of primary instruction, and is divided into—a Bureau for the nomination and control of all functionaries, teachers, &c.; and a Bureau for regulating salaries, aids, and expenses of all kinds connected with primary schools, &c.

(c) 2nd Division, for the superintendence of scientific and literary institutions. This comprises—a Bureau of Public Libraries, for superintending those of Paris and the departments, literary and scientific subscriptions and aids, literary and scientific commissions, &c.; a Bureau of Learned Societies, superintending the institute of France, the garden of plants, collège de France, school of oriental languages, school of charters, course of archæological lectures, British foundations, bureau des longitudes, observatories of Marseilles and Toulouse, medical affairs, &c.; and a Bureau of Historical Operations, directing the search for and publication of inedited documents concerning the history of France, the historical, scientific, and monumental committees, &c.

(d) 3rd Division, for the control of all matters relating to the payment of salaries, the keeping of the general accounts of the department, and the settlement of all matters in contention. It comprises—a Bureau of Central Documents, which draws out all warrants of payment, forms the general estimate for the budget, and verifies general expenses; a Bureau of Accounts for Academies, which regulates the payment of salaries to academical functionaries, fees paid to the academies, matters of contention, &c.; and a Bureau of Accounts for Royal Colleges performing the same functions for all persons connected with those establishments.

The appointments of all persons employed in public instruction are either made directly by the minister himself or are obliged to receive his sanction in order to be valid; and in the same way they are either removable from their offices by him, or the decrees for their removal require his sanction. The nomination to scientific societies, committees, &c., under the minister's control, are either made directly by himself or require his sanction, and, in some cases, as that of the Institute, require the royal approbation.

The powers of the Minister of Public Instruction, as will have been seen, are very extensive, and indeed almost unlimited, since he is subject to no supreme control, except that of the Sovereign and the Legislature, and to no inspection except that of the Royal Council of Public Instruction. His parliamentary duties consist, besides the general political business of the Cabinet, in bringing forward all Government bills connected with public instruction, scientific and literary subjects, &c., in carrying them through their several stages in both Chambers: and the personages chosen for this post in the Cabinet are almost always such as have distinguished themselves in the literary or scientific world. The most eminent Minister of Public Instruction of late days has been M. Guizot, who gave an extraordinary impulse to all the establishments under his control, originated many most important reforms and improvements, and *founded numerous establishments*, such as the three committees mentioned

above, (he was the originator of the plan, which was carried into effect by M. de Salvandy, his successor,) besides making various regulations of considerable value. M. Cousin also filled this office with much distinction, and, during the short period he remained in the Government, made many important changes in the faculties of law and medicine. The present minister is M. Villemain, who has continued the same system as his predecessors, and who, like them, is inclined to enfranchise all schools from being forced to comply with the one uniform system of instruction which is now made compulsory for all France.

ACADEMIES.

The different academies in the provincial towns of France have all for their type and model that of Paris: they are formed on an analogous plan, and their rules of lecturing, of examining, and of conferring degrees are, *ceteris paribus*, the same. In general they are sufficiently well adapted to the importance and the interests of their respective localities, though there are some instances in which an augmentation would be highly desirable; and they are likely to receive an increase both of endowment and influence according as the nation becomes more and more enlightened, and more wealthy by the continuance of a period of peace and prosperity. There is no need to enter into any specifications of the modes of procedure adopted in these institutions, since they vary but little from what is practised in the metropolis: all that is essential to be observed is that they are on a smaller scale, and that the number of students who attend the lectures of their professors is much inferior to that of the students who throng round the chairs of the Sorbonne, or the Collège de France. Although, however, the academies are proportioned in the number of their faculties and of their chairs to the literary and scientific importance of the districts in which they are situated, the professors who belong to them are all of first-rate merit, being selected, according to the excellent system which has been of late years adopted, from the most distinguished men of the country; and thus, the lectures delivered in a provincial academy are by no means inferior to those of which the metropolis itself can boast. For some time a love of literature and science has been fast gaining ground in France, and it has been found necessary to establish new faculties in several of the great commercial cities. Thus at Bordeaux, Lyons, Rouen, Rennes, and Toulouse, faculties of sciences and letters have been founded; and, judging from the eagerness with which the courses of lectures are followed, have been productive of the best results. At Lyons, in particular, the second city in the kingdom both for population and wealth, the lectures of some of the more popular of the professors, such as the Professor of History and the Professor of Modern Literature, have been so much followed that the largest rooms appropriated to the Faculty of Letters have been insufficient to contain the audiences, and the apartments of the town-hall have had to be lent for the purpose. A similar result has been witnessed at Bordeaux, where, at one time, the crowds which beset the doors of the lecture rooms were so large and so eager, that the interference of the police was required to maintain order. In all cases the provincial academies serve as centres of intelligence and civilization, and they confer the most solid benefits on the localities in which they are established.

The principal academy of France, after that of Paris, is perhaps Strasburg, where the Germanic element prevailing over the French has given a certain gravity and dignity to the academy which other and newer institutions have not yet attained. Strasburg has faculties of theology, law, medicine, letters, and sciences, and numbers among its professors some of the most distinguished men in France. The faculty of theology is Protestant, of the confession of Augsburg, or Lutheran; and is, together with the faculties of law and medicine, held in high repute. The most celebrated medical faculty in France, after that of Paris, is the faculty of Montpellier, and two other faculties of sciences and letters flourish in the same city. Poitiers has the faculty of law, which is the most frequented after that of the capital; but it has only a secondary school of medicine, and no other faculties are yet founded in its academy. The academies of Caen, Toulouse, Rennes, Lyons, and Bordeaux, are about equal in rank and reputation; that of Toulouse possesses two faculties of theology, one for Roman Catholics at Toulouse itself, the other for Calvinists at Montauban. In all these academies the lectures are perfectly open and gratuitous, those only in medicine and law requiring a few formalities and some very inconsiderable fees from students who intend to graduate. The professors are all paid by Government, are totally independent of their auditories, and are not subject to any restrictions whatever (except in the theological faculties) as to religious opinions. The value of their appointments is not yet reduced to an uniform scale, though the Government is anxious to effect this object: but in the newly-founded faculties the chairs are endowed handsomely, in comparison with the usual incomes of French men of letters; and to single out Bordeaux as an example, the salaries are about 4,000 francs (160*l.*) a-year.

SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

An important project of law for the regulation of secondary instruction was presented to the Chamber of Deputies on the 10th of March, 1841, by M. Villemain, minister of public instruction; but, from the press of other sessional business, it was not passed into a law before the breaking up of the Chambers. Little doubt exists of its being passed during the session of 1842. From the preamble of this Bill several valuable facts concerning the statistical condition of this branch of public education may be deduced; we subjoin some of the most remarkable. The minister notices an objection raised to the actual system of instruction, that it is too classical, and forms too many "*demi-savants*," turning out into the world too many young men who are rendered by it unfit for the station of life in which they are born, and yet unable to obtain sufficient occupation and maintenance in a higher grade. He denies, on statistical grounds, that this objection is valid, and says,—“Let an account be taken of the professions and public occupations which require or presuppose a select fund of knowledge, and a real degree of intellectual cultivation, I am convinced that, from our public schools, our private schools, and our circles of domestic education, there is hardly sent forth each year a sufficient number of candidates to insure the methodic and regular recruitment of society in all its elective or delegated functions, in all the liberal professions, in all the higher *branches of industry*, which form, so to speak, the civil staff of the

country. Classical instruction, in fact, results in, and is to be estimated by, the baccalaureate in letters. Now, the exact number of bachelors admitted during the last 12 years gives an average of 3,248 per annum; and, on the other hand, the total number of social positions to be filled in the magistracy, superior administration, the bar, and the learned professions, exceeds 60,000. A comparison of these numbers shows that, if the probable duration of life be taken into account, the actual results of secondary instruction are far from being too great, and that they are not even yet in a proportion to meet the regular and successive demands of the country."

Religious instruction of pupils destined to enter the Roman Catholic church does not come entirely under the control of the Minister of Public Instruction; it belongs to the department of the Minister of Justice and Public Worship. It is, nevertheless, to be made partially subject to the action of the proposed law, inasmuch as certain degrees in different faculties and proofs of capacity will be required from the various professors and teachers engaged in this branch. This division of public instruction is carried on in ecclesiastical seminaries, one or more of which exist in each diocese, and under the special control and direction of the bishop. In the *grands séminaires*, (there are two classes of such establishments,—large seminaries and small seminaries,—the former being supplied from the latter,) the total number of pupils in 1837 amounted to 7,888; in 1838 to 7,402; in 1839 to 6,974; and in 1840 to about 7,500; giving a yearly average of 7,441. The pupils remain in these seminaries three years, so that, to keep this number up, there must be an annual supply sent to the great from the little seminaries of 2,480 pupils; and, as the pupils remain in the little seminaries, or secondary ecclesiastical schools, from seven to eight years, it is evident that this supposes a total number of pupils in the latter class of schools amounting to an annual average of 17,300 to 19,800 pupils. This number, added to that reported in the great seminaries, forms a body of 25,000 to 27,000 young men constantly in the course of regular education for the supply of clergymen to the French Catholic church.

The number of communal colleges has decreased since 1836, when it amounted to 323: the present number being 312. This arises not wholly from the extinction of such colleges, but from their conversion from communal into royal colleges. The total number of pupils in communal colleges is now about 26,000.

The number of "*Institutions*" in France is 106, containing 9,420 pupils; and the number of "*Pensions*" 991, containing 24,691; or the total number of these schools, taken jointly, is 1,097, and of their pupils, 34,111.

According to the existing law, framed principally in the time of Napoleon, no *institutions* or *pensions*, or other scholastic establishments, can be formed in France (for the instruction of French children) without being subjected to the law affecting the University of France. By the terms of this law, the authorization of the Grand Master of the University (the Minister of Public Instruction) must be obtained before any such establishment can be set up. The head master of an *institution* must be a bachelor in sciences at least, and the master of a *pension* a bachelor in letters at least, while the under masters must produce certain certificates of capacity. All the pupils in these establishments are obliged to follow

the courses of lectures in the royal or communal colleges of the towns where they exist, or at all events to pay the regular fees for such attendance; and without producing certificates of having so done, or of having received competent education at home, no one can be admitted to the examination of the baccalaureate in letters in any academy. According to the law proposed by M. Villemain, several important changes are to be introduced into the system of regulations; and, as there is little doubt of its speedily being enacted, we subjoin an abstract of its most essential provisions, as giving a general idea of what the legal system of secondary instruction in France will be.

Secondary instruction is defined as including moral and religious instruction, the study of ancient and modern languages, 'philosophy, history, geography, and mathematical and physical sciences, serving as a preparation for the examinations for the baccalaureate in letters, the baccalaureate in sciences, or for admission into special schools. The establishments for secondary instruction are either private or public. The private establishments are either *Institutions* in which *all* the branches of secondary instruction are taught, or *Pensions*, in which part only are taught. Every French male subject, aged twenty-five years at least, not incapacitated by the terms of the law on primary education, may form a private establishment of secondary instruction, on depositing the following documents in the hands of the rector of the academy within the jurisdiction of which he proposes to fix himself, viz., a certificate of good conduct during the preceding three years from the mayor and three municipal councillors of his commune; the diplomas of academic degrees, and certificates of capacity specified below; the regulations and plan of studies to be observed in the establishment, (this document to be deposited annually); and the plan of the buildings of the establishment. On these documents being duly approved and registered by the academic authorities, they are to be returned to the depositor within two months at latest, and the establishment may then be opened.

At the seat of each academy there is to be formed a jury of examination for the candidates who wish to obtain certificates of capacity for secondary instruction. This jury is to consist of the Rector of the Academy, as president; the Procurator-general of the Royal Court, or the King's procurator of the Civil Tribunal; the mayor; a Roman Catholic clergyman, appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction on the nomination of the bishop of the diocese; a minister of each of the other persuasions recognized by the state, (Lutheran, Calvinist, and Jewish,) appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction on the nomination of the consistorial authority, with this reservation that the Roman Catholic and other ministers shall only take part in the examinations of the candidates which belong to their own persuasions; the head of a private establishment of secondary instruction, chosen by the Minister; and four other members chosen by the Minister from among the professors of the academy, the magistrates, or the notable citizens of the district under the jurisdiction of the academy.

Every candidate, in order to be allowed to present himself before this jury, must be a Frenchman, aged twenty-one years at least; a bachelor in letters at least, if a candidate for the diploma of a master of a *pension*; or a bachelor in sciences, (which presupposes the baccalaureate in letters,) or a *licentiate* in letters at least, if a candidate for the diploma of a

master of an *institution*. No candidate rejected at an examination by this jury can be admitted to a new examination within the space of one year, and no one can again present himself after three rejections. The examinations are to be conducted in public. No person can be admitted as master or usher in any private establishment of secondary instruction without producing the certificate of good conduct specified above, nor without being bachelor in letters at least, and bachelor in mathematical and physical sciences at least for the upper classes.

All obligations imposed on the heads of *institutions* and *pensions* to send their pupils to the courses of lectures of royal or communal colleges are suppressed, as is also the obligation of presenting certificates of university or domestic studies for admissibility to the examinations for the baccalaureate in letters. The provisions of this law are enforced by certain fines and penalties specified in it ; and they are to be applicable to all secondary ecclesiastical schools after five years from the date of promulgation. Out of the total number of pupils in such ecclesiastical schools the minister may grant dispensations of payment of all university fees to 20,000.

With regard to the public establishments of secondary instruction, the following stipulations are made :—The number of royal colleges is to be increased until there shall be at least one in each department ; the towns are to contribute a fixed fund towards the repairs of the buildings of all colleges, royal or communal ; to found a certain number of bursarships in case of the college being a royal one ; and to secure the salaries of the principal and professors for five years at least, in case of the college being a communal one. Communal colleges are defined as being of two classes : the first including those in which the pupils receive instruction analogous to that of a royal college ; and the second, including those in which only part of this instruction is given. In communal colleges of the first class, the professors must have the same academic degrees as the professors of royal colleges ; in communal colleges of the second order there must be at least four professors graduates, including the principal. The teaching of ancient languages is not obligatory in colleges of the second class ; and cannot, even when it is admitted, advance beyond that of the class of grammar in other colleges. To every communal college there must be a gratuitous administrative council, comprising the mayor of the town as president, and from five to seven members of the municipal council, or notable inhabitants of the town, selected by the Minister of Public Instruction. In all communal colleges of the first class the salary of each professor of philosophy, rhetoric, special mathematics, and physics, as well as of the almoner, must be 1,800 francs (72*l.*) per annum at least ; and that of any other professor in communal colleges of either class must be 1,200 francs (48*l.*) per annum at least.

The *Ecole Normale* is so essential an institution in the system of secondary instruction, that a slight account of its organization is necessary. It consists of a Director General, a Director of Studies, a Surveillant General, 2 *Maîtres Surveillants*, and 34 *Maîtres de Conférences*, or professors, viz. ;—

Section of Letters, first year, 5 ; viz., Greek, Latin, French, Ancient History and Antiquities, Philosophy : second year, 6 ; viz., History of Greek Literature, History of French Literature, History of Mediæval

and Modern Literature, History of Philosophy, Grammar; third year, for superior classes, 5, viz., Greek, Latin, French, History, Philosophy.

Section of Sciences, first year, 4; viz., Applied Analysis and Descriptive Geometry, Differential Calculus, Chemistry, Drawing; second year, 4; viz., Botany and Mineralogy, Physics, Mechanics, Drawing; third year, 10; viz., Geology, Zoology, Comparative Anatomy and Physiology, Chemical Manipulations and Analyses, Physical Manipulations and construction of instruments, complement of studies and exercises to prepare for the *concours d'Agrégation*, Astronomy, Calculus of Probabilities, Drawing, general and adjunct preparators.

The total number of pupils is 88, of whom 51 are in the section of letters, and 37 in that of sciences.

Of the former there are in the first year 24, viz. whole bursars 7, half ditto 17. In the second year 20, viz., whole bursars 7, half ditto 8; Division of Grammar, half bursars 5. In the third year 7, viz., superior Classes of Letters, whole bursars 2; History, whole bursars 2; Philosophy, whole bursars 3.

Of the 37 in the section of sciences, there are in the first year 18, viz., whole bursars 8, half ditto 10. In the second year 12, viz., whole bursars 6, half ditto 6. In the third year 7, viz., Mathematical Sciences, whole bursars 4; Physical and Natural Sciences, whole bursars 2, half ditto 1.

This establishment is placed under the immediate authority of the Minister and Royal Council of Public Instruction. It is destined for the special education of persons who wish to become professors in the Colleges of the University; and the pupils, who are admitted only after a severe preliminary examination, are classed either as whole bursars, or as half bursars, according to the rank they obtain in the admission list by order of merit. The principal conditions of admission are as follows:—1st. That the age of the candidates shall not be less than 17 years, nor more than 23, complete on the 1st of July, in the year in which they present themselves. 2ndly. That they shall have terminated their studies, up to the class of philosophy inclusively, in a royal college, or in a communal college *de plein exercice*: producing at the same time, satisfactory testimonials of morality, good conduct, &c., from such college: and 3rdly. That they shall have taken the degree of Bachelor in Letters, if they are candidates for the section of letters, or that of Bachelor of Sciences, if candidates for the section of sciences; presenting at the same time the diplomas of graduation, with the legal authorization of their parents or guardians, to undertake an engagement of ten years duration in the department of public instruction. A register of inscription, for the names of candidates, is open in every academy of the kingdom, from the 16th of June to the 15th of July each year; and the preliminary examination takes place in each academy, from the 4th to the 10th of August in each year. The examination consists, for the section of letters, of written compositions on all the parts of rhetoric and philosophy, and of interrogations on the different objects of instruction in those classes, as well as in those of history and the humanities; for the section of sciences, of compositions in mathematics and physics, together with a French dissertation, a Latin translation, and corresponding interrogations. The pupils thus declared admissible, are obliged, within the first ten days after their arrival at

the school, to undergo before the professors of the establishment a definitive examination, the result of which, compared with the previous examination, determines whether they are to be finally admitted or not. The courses of lectures commence on the 16th of October in each year, and last till the middle of August; the total duration of residence for the pupils is three years. Independently of the lectures (or conferences as they are termed) given within the establishment, the pupils attend the public courses of lectures at the *Collège de France*, the Faculties of Sciences and Letters, the Garden of Plants, &c. The school is established in the ancient *Collège du Plessis*, No. 115 Rue St. Jacques; but a new and more considerable building is about to be erected, to the south of the Pantheon, in the Rue d'Ulm.

To return to the general subject of Secondary Instruction: the appointments of professors in the royal colleges are made exclusively from the list of *Professeurs Agrégés*, or Associated Professors; and no one whose name does not appear on this list can receive such an appointment. A general examination is opened every year in Paris for candidates from all parts of France, in the several classes for which the professorships are destined, and is conducted with extreme severity. It lasts a considerable time, several weeks in each class, and is conducted by the most eminent men connected with the University of France. A considerable proportion of the candidates are rejected, and the general list may be considered as comprising the most efficient names among the literary and scientific world. According as vacancies occur, the professors are selected out of this list of *agrégés* according to seniority, though no one is forced to accept a professorship contrary to his inclination without forfeiting his right of future nomination. There are about 500 *agrégés* of all classes, and a large proportion of them are either doctors or licentiates in their respective faculties, or are pupils of the *Ecole Normale*, or else have held professorships in communal colleges. The examination for the candidates is equivalent to the examination for fellowships in the larger colleges of British Universities; and, though the *agrégés* receive no salaries as such, they may be considered as representing the fellows of the French University, since they cannot avoid succeeding to the professorships according as they fall vacant.*

The professors of communal colleges are chosen either from the pupils of the *Ecole Normale* or from the graduates of the different academical faculties throughout France; and in general both for this class, as well as certainly for the class of professors in royal colleges, the selection of the Minister of Public Instruction is made according to academical merit.

None of the appointments of professorships in either class of colleges would be considered valuable in England; but, compared with the general pay of public functionaries of all kinds in France, the remuneration of the professors is adequately large. The highest does not exceed 3,000 francs (120*l.*) a year, and the lowest is about 1,200 francs (48*l.*) The greatest part of these appointments are for provincial towns, and the salaries are sufficient to maintain a single man with respectability.

* The number of *agrégés*, who can be admitted in any one year, is limited. In 1842 the number is fixed as follows:—Classes of philosophy, 5; of mathematical sciences, 5; of physical sciences, 4; of superior letters, 8; of grammar, 8; of history, 5.

No limitation as to religious opinions or celibacy are imposed ; and in general the professors are able by means of private pupils and literary or scientific occupations to add to their incomes.

For the professorships in the faculties of law and medicine, similar examinations of aggregation take place, and, at the time of the superior degrees (Licentiates and Doctorates) in those faculties being granted, prizes are given to the candidates who most distinguish themselves. In the examinations for the professorships the subjects are analogous to, but much more difficult than, those for the examination of graduations, and they are also more extensive. They consist not only of *vivâ voce* interpellations, translations, and original compositions both in French and Latin, but also include the delivery of set theses, and the supporting of arguments, exactly the same as the scholastic exercises for degrees in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge ; only with this exception, that they are maintained with much more vigour in Paris, and that an act kept in presence of a professor and the graduates of a faculty in the Academy of Paris is still, as of old, a matter of serious importance.

To give an idea of what an examination of aggregation or *Concours d'Agrégation* is, (the list of subjects for 1841 will be found below) the following abstract is subjoined of the report from the Dean of the Faculty of Letters in the Academy of Paris* to the Minister of Public Instruction, dated October 3, 1840. It states that three places of Agrégés in the section of Ancient and Modern Literature having become vacant, the Faculty of Letters met at the Sorbonne on the 15th September, under himself as Dean. The judges were (besides the Dean) M. Alexandre, Inspector General of Studies ; M. Fauriel, Member of the Institute and Professor of Foreign Literature in the Academy of Paris ; M. Patin, Professor of Latin Poetry in the same faculty ; and M. Ampère, Professor of French Literature in the Collège de France. Eight doctors in letters had inscribed their names as candidates, but only seven presented themselves ; and of these, another was obliged to abandon the examination after some time from fatigue ; the other six persevered to the end. The examination lasted almost without interruption every day from 10 to 5 o'clock from the 16th of September to the 1st of October inclusive, and the result was proclaimed at 11 o'clock on the morning of the 2nd. The Dean reminds the Minister that according to the regulations he had laid down, the texts from Greek, Latin, and French authors, upon which the candidates were to discuss, and which they were to explain, as well as the subjects of Foreign Literature, were prescribed in a precise manner and previously specified ; but that the two subjects of written composition, (one in Latin, the other in French,) and the subjects of the two *Epreuves orales*, or *vivâ voce* discourses, which had to be made, one after a day's preparation, the other after only an hour's preparation, were left to the selection of the judges. Each of these *vivâ voce* discourses was to last an hour and a half, and the candidates had to develop, as the Dean observes, the most fertile as well as the most arid questions of ancient and modern literature, which the drawing of them by lot† might designate ; “ from the monuments of ancient eloquence to the humble labours of the Greek

* M. Leclerc.

† For an explanation of this system see the Paper on the Academy of Paris, referred to in a previous note.

and Latin scholiasts; from the plan of a complete course of French poetry down to the rules of the art of translation." The Dean then proceeds to remark, that three candidates out of the seven who began, soon showed their superiority and maintained it to the end; and the first candidate of the three above mentioned (Dr. Ozanam) showed, besides his extensive knowledge of the ancient languages, that he was master of the four modern languages indicated in the programme; viz. Italian, Spanish, German, and English. The Dean then gives a notice of the examination of each of the six candidates, paying the compliments which they appear all to have deserved. He then declares the first three, (Dr. Ozanam, Professor of Commercial Law in the Faculty of Law at Lyons; Dr. Egger, Supplementary Examiner or *répétiteur* at the Ecole Normale; and Dr. Berger, Supplementary Professor of Latin Literature, in the Faculty of Letters, at Caen,) to be worthy of recommendations as candidates for the vacant places of *agrégés*. He further recommends to the notice of the Minister of Public Instruction, Dr. Demogest, (the fourth candidate in order of merit,) Professor of Rhetoric in the Royal College at Lyons. No recommendation is added to the compliments already paid to the last two of the six candidates. The Dean further adds, that the examination having taken place in the month of September, when the professors of several provincial faculties and colleges had profited by the annual vacation to visit the capital, the hall of the Faculty of Letters, in which the public examination took place, was hardly spacious enough to contain the crowd of professors and graduates who attended the *whole* of the examinations each day. On this report being presented to the Minister of Public Instruction, he immediately issued a decree for admitting the first three candidates into the list of *agrégés*.

*List of Subjects for the Examination of Associated Professors,
for 1841.*

(*Concours des Agrégés.*)

(I.) For Candidates for Professorships in the classes of Grammar and superior classes of Letters.

(a.) Classes of Grammar.

(*Greek.*)

The Philippic Orations.—The Archidamas of Isocrates.—Lucian's Eulogium of Demosthenes.—Plutarch's Life of Demosthenes.—Xenophon's Anabasis.—Iliad, viith Book.—Odyssey, xxivth Book.—The Dioscuri of Theocritus.—Herodotus, vth and viith Books.

(*Latin.*)

The Episodes of the first three Georgics, and the whole of the fourth Georgic.—Cicero de Senectute, de Amicitia, Somnium Scipionis, and Paradoxa.—Sallust, The Jugurthine War, and the two Epistles De Ordinanda Republica.—Ovid, the first two books of the Fasti.—Quintus Curtius, Books viiith and ix.—Cæsar, first two books of the Gallic war.—Livy, the Preface and the First Book.

(b.) Superior Classes of Letters.

(*Greek.*)

The Nemæan Odes of Pindar.—The Choephore of Æschylus.—The Electra of Euripides.—The Plutus of Aristophanes.—The Oration on the Paraprosbeia of Demosthenes.—Dinarchus on Demosthenes.—Thucydides, First Book.—Aristotle, Third Book of the Rhetoric.

(Latin.)

Horace, Epistles.—Plautus's *Pænulus*.—Lucretius, Book 5.—Persius, Satires; and the Satire of Sulpicia.—Cicero's Letters to Atticus, Books 1 and 2.—Pliny's Letters, Books 1, 2, 3, and 4.—Seneca's Letters to Lucilius, the first 50.—Cicero, de Oratore.—Tacitus, Germany.

6. (II.) For Candidates for Professorships in the superior classes of Letters.—
Oral Examination.

1. To give an analytical account of the Rhetoric of Aristotle; and to extract the precepts applicable to eloquence and composition in modern times.
2. To compare the *Choeephoræ* of Æschylus, the *Electra* of Sophocles, and the *Electra* of Euripides.
3. To analyze the Epistles of Horace with regard to their style, and literary and historical details.
4. To analyze the following Orations of Cicero:—*Pro lege Manili*; *In Catilinam*; *De lege Agrariâ*; *Post reditum in Senatum*; *Pro Domo*; *De har. Respon.*; *Philipp*.
5. To analyze the epistolary style of the Latins, giving the characteristics of Cicero, Seneca, and Pliny.
6. To study the causes of pulpit eloquence in the 17th century, and to compare the sermons of Bossuet, Massillon, Bourdaloue, and Fenelon.
7. To compare the first part of the *Pensées de Pascal*: select chapters from La Bruyère; select Essays of Nicole; the Moral Reflections of La Rochefoucault; the Introduction to the Knowledge of the Human Mind; and the Reflections of Vauvenargues.

(III.) For Candidates for Professorships in the classes of Philosophy.

From the *Republic* of Plato.

1. What is the actual object and plan of the *Republic*?
2. Explain and discuss the theory of the ideas: compare the passages of the *Republic* in which this theory is contained with the analogous passages of the *Phædra*, the *Phædon*, and the *Parmenides*: explain and estimate the refutation of this theory given by Aristotle in his *Metaphysics*.
3. Compare together the *Republic*, the *Politics*, the *Gorgias*, and the *Laws*.
4. Mention the general judgment given by Aristotle in the Second Book of the *Politics* on the *Republic* of Plato, and also the criticisms on it in other parts of the same work.

From the *Metaphysics* of Aristotle.

1. Give a succinct analysis of each book of the *Metaphysics*, and discuss the object and plan of that work.
2. Give a detailed analysis of the First Book; and appreciate its character and value.
3. Ditto, Twelfth Book.

From the *Logic* of Aristotle.

1. Give an analysis of the First Book of the First Analytics; and explain the most important terms and formulæ.
2. Ditto, Second Book.

From the *Theodicæa* of Leibnitz.

Give an account of the doctrine contained in the different writings of Leibnitz comprised under this title.

(IV.) For Candidates for Professorships in the classes of History.

1. Give an account of the *Panegyric* and *Panathenaic* discourses of Isocrates; and of the *Panathenaic* discourse of Aristides. Point out the value of these discourses as illustrating the history of Athens.
2. Determine the extent and limits of the Greek invasion of Asia under Alexander, and during the first century after his death. Point out the principal results; the establishment of colonies; and the foundation of towns.
3. Explain the political organization of the Roman Empire under Augustus, and also under Diocletian.
4. What changes were introduced into the commercial intercourse of the East and

the West, first by the conquests of Alexander, next by those of the Romans, and then by the removal of the seat of Empire to Constantinople ?

5. Point out the causes of the decline of the Spanish monarchy from the death of Charles V. to the accession of Philip V.
6. Explain the origin, and point out the principal vicissitudes, of the institution of Parliaments in France up to the time of their suppression during the French Revolution.

(V.) For Candidates for Professorships in the classes of Foreign Languages and Literature.*

(Italian.)

First Canto of the *Inferno* of Dante.—The Canzone of Petrarch to Rienzi, *Italia mia*, &c.—Machiavelli, First Book of *History of Florence*.

(Spanish.)

First Book of *Don Quixote*.—Extracts from the *Romancero*.

(German.)

First Canto of Klopstock's *Messiah*.—First Act of Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell*.—Last book of Goëthe's *Hermann und Dorothea*.

(English.)

Last Act of Shakspeare's *Julius Cæsar*.—First Book of Milton's *Paradise Lost*.

Table of Studies to be observed in Royal Colleges, and Communal Colleges de plein exercice, (or in which the full course of study is followed,) as fixed by Decree of August 25, 1840.

Elementary or Seventh and Lowest Class.—French, and first rudiments of Latin, 8 lessons a-week. Sacred history, geography, and arithmetic, 2 lessons.

Sixth Class.—French, Latin, and first rudiments of Greek, 9 lessons, (10 lessons in the Paris colleges.) Ancient History, 1 lesson.

Fifth Class.—French, Latin, and Greek, 9 lessons, (10 lessons in Paris.) Ancient History, 1 lesson.

Fourth Class.—Ancient languages, 8 lessons. Living languages, 1 lesson. Roman History, 2 lessons.

Third Class.—Ancient languages, 8 lessons. Living languages, 1 lesson. Mediæval History, 2 lessons.

Second Class.—Ancient languages, 8 lessons. Living languages, 1 lesson. Modern History, 2 lessons.

Rhetoric Class.—French and Ancient languages, 8 lessons, (9 in Paris.) French History of France, 2 lessons.

Philosophy Class, First Year.—Philosophy, 5 lessons. Mathematics, 3 lessons; Elementary ditto, 4 lessons. Physics, Chemistry, and Natural History, 3 lessons.

Philosophy Class, Second Year, (highest class).—Special mathematics, 6 lessons. Physics, 3 lessons. Alternate compositions in mathematics and physics, 1 lesson.

On the System of Education in the Colleges of France.

The name of "College" in France is not of the same import as in England: in the former country it indicates what the colleges of the British universities were in former days, when students were received at a much younger age than they now are, and when these institutions approached nearly to what is now meant by the word public schools, such as those of Eton, Winchester, Harrow, &c. The French colleges still receive pupils from the age of seven or eight upwards, and their system is therefore necessarily adapted to the education of boys rather than of young men. According to the present organization, too, of public instruction

* These subjects were for 1840; but they serve to give an idea of the general nature of the examinations.

in France, the colleges are quite distinct from the academical faculties. The major part of them exist in towns where no faculties are established, and they are to be considered in every respect in the light of schools. In some colleges the boarders are numerous, but in most the number of day pupils is more considerable than that of the pupils who reside permanently in the establishment. The college, in nine instances out of ten, is for the especial benefit of the town alone in which it is situated, and serves as a general public school for the locality. Parents send their children there to attend the daily lessons, and the schools send their scholars, under the superintendence of ushers, for the same purpose.* Those pupils who reside in the college are under the personal superintendence of the principal and some of the professors or masters of studies. The fees, as in those of Paris, vary from 600 francs to 1,000 francs (24*l.* to 40*l.*) per annum for boarders, and amount to only 20 or 40 francs (16*s.* to 1*l.* 12*s.*) for the day pupils.

The system of instruction pursued varies greatly according to the nature of the locality and the size of the college. In the royal colleges, and the communal colleges of the first class, it comprises most of the branches of a good education,—literary and scientific; while in some of the smaller colleges in remote country towns it extends barely beyond the rudiments of a plain French education. In the larger establishments, the pupils study the ancient languages to a considerable extent, so much so that it is a general complaint in France that too much time is given to Latin and Greek, and that the pupils leave their colleges too much stored with ancient lore, and not enough with the elements of modern knowledge. This reproach is not altogether unfounded; but the attention paid to the living languages, and to the practical application of scientific knowledge, is increasing every day. In the ancient languages the pupils commence with such books as Eutropius and Cornelius Nepos, a favourite author in French schools, and advance as far as Cicero's Epistles, Tacitus, Pliny, &c.; while in Greek they commence with easy extracts from Xenophon, &c., and end with the Tragedians and Orators. Very little time is given to Greek or Latin versification; but a good deal is devoted to the writing of Latin prose, and, for the higher classes, to Greek prose. In mathematics considerable progress is commonly made, and the elder pupils generally read as far as the Differential and Integral Calculus and Mechanics before leaving college. Much more time is given to the acquisition of elementary notions of physics than in any English school, the pupils receiving instruction in chemistry, practical mechanics, elementary astronomy, and zoology; and considerable benefit is found to result from this part of the system, though the instruction thus given is necessarily superficial. The study of modern history, as well as that of ancient, is now much attended to, and with equally beneficial results; and the same may be said of modern languages, one of which, besides French, is generally taught to every pupil in a college. The writing of exercises, themes, translations, &c., forms the main part of the pupil's occupations. Verse and prose are also committed to memory to a considerable extent; but *vivâ voce* exercises, except in the way of examinations, are not much practised;

* The regulation respecting schools is about to be altered by a special law, mentioned in another part of this Report.

and the teaching of writing, or calligraphy as it is generally termed in France, (a term that implies the existence of a great deal of cacography,) is almost wholly neglected. Geography, elementary drawing, and music, are much practised by the pupils in all the better classes of establishments; and, in general, it may be said, that the system of French collegiate or scholastic education is not only more extensive or miscellaneous than that adopted in England, but is also well adapted to the peculiar political and social condition of the country. An idea may be formed, by an inspection of the following list of professorships in the several classes of colleges, as to what the courses of study pursued in them comprise. We subjoin those of three such establishments taken from provincial towns, as giving a fair average for the rest.

The first is that of the Royal College of Bordeaux, one of the most important commercial cities in France, and the seat of an academy, in which a faculty of theology, a faculty of letters, a faculty of sciences, and a secondary school of medicine are established.

The list of officers attached to this college, commencing from the highest, is as follows:—A Provisor, or head master, who, in this instance, (an unusual one,) is a Roman Catholic clergyman; a Censor, or head tutor; an Almoner, who is a Roman Catholic clergyman, (in several colleges where the district includes many Protestants the almoner is either a Protestant; or there are two almoners, one Roman Catholic, the other Protestant); a Steward, who manages the funds, and provides for the maintenance of the boarders, &c.; a Professor of Philosophy, who is always the head professor; a Professor of Special Mathematics; a Professor of Physical Sciences; a Professor of Elementary Mathematics; a Professor of Rhetoric, the head classical professor; a Professor of History; a Professor of second class; a Professor of third class; a Professor of fourth class; a Professor of fifth class; a Professor of sixth class; a Professor of Elementary Classes; a Professor of Natural History, which has hitherto been taught to pupils while in the lower classes; a Professor of English; a Professor of German; thirteen masters of studies, or ushers, and a surveillant.

According to this arrangement the lowest class is the elementary one, into which, unless qualified for a superior class, a pupil, on entering the college would first be placed; he would remain a year in it, and then would mount step by step from one class to another until he got to the rhetoric class, thus occupying eight years. At this period of their course a few pupils are removed from the college, but the greater number remain for the classes of elementary mathematics and physical sciences, and a good many for that of philosophy or special mathematics, thus occupying three years more. The professors of history and modern languages do not have a year specially devoted to each of their periods of instruction, but give their lectures or lessons concurrently with those of other professors at various parts of the general course. A boy entering the elementary classes at 7 or 8 years of age would thus reach the first classical, or rhetoric class by the age of 13 or 14, and that of philosophy, or special mathematics by the age of 16 or 17.

In this college, besides the ordinary course of education, special classes have been opened to meet the demand of a large portion of the inhabitants of Bordeaux, and instruction is given of a kind adapted to

young men, who are intended for commercial or manufacturing pursuits.

The College of Bordeaux is one of the largest of the royal colleges in France, and is held in great repute in that part of the country. It contains altogether 449 pupils, of whom 32 are royal bursars, that is, who are entirely educated and boarded free of all expense to their parents; 14 communal bursars, who enjoy the same advantages at the expense of the city of Bordeaux; 178 boarders, or *pensionnaires libres*, who pay the full charges of the college, and reside permanently within its walls; 24 half-boarders, who only take their meals there and attend the classes; and 201 day pupils, who only come to repeat their lessons, undergo their examinations, and profit by the general course of instruction. The royal colleges of Marseilles, Lyons, Rouen, Strasburg, &c., are of the same kind: other royal colleges in smaller towns contain the same number of professors, nearly, but have not so many pupils; and the course of instruction pursued in them is not quite so high.

The next college we shall select is a communal college of the larger kind, such as that of Boulogne-sur-Mer, in the jurisdiction of the academy of Douai. The town of Boulogne is one of no small intellectual, as well as commercial, activity: the inhabitants, by their constant intercourse with foreigners, are more enlightened than those of many other provincial towns in France. There is a good museum of natural history, and an ecclesiastical seminary established in the place; and there are also two considerable English boarding schools, or *pensions*, which have flourished there for many years. The officers of this college are as follows:—A Principal or head master; an Almoner, a Roman Catholic clergyman; a Professor of Philosophy, or head professor; a Professor of Mathematics; a Professor of Rhetoric, the head classical professor; a Professor of Physics and Chemistry; a Professor of History; a Professor of second class; a Professor of third class; a Professor of fourth class; a Professor of fifth class; a Professor of sixth class; a Professor of seventh class; a Professor of eighth class; a Professor of French language; and a Professor of English language. Here a pupil entering the eighth or lowest class at the age of 7 or 8 would attain to the rhetoric or first class at the age of 14 or 15, and he would be in that of mathematics or philosophy at 16 or 17. The lessons given by the professors of physics, history, and modern languages are adjuncts to those of the general classes. This college is maintained entirely at the expense of the town of Boulogne, which allots an annual sum of 29,700 francs (1,188*l.*) to that purpose;* and to this a further sum of 8,900 francs (356*l.*) per annum† is added, being the produce of the fees paid by the day pupils, the *pensions* in the town, &c. The total number of pupils is 115, of whom 21 are boarders, and 94 are day pupils. From the number of professors, including the principal and the almoner, being 16, and the revenues amounting to 38,600 francs (1,544*l.*) per annum, it results that the average income of the officers is about 2,400 francs (96*l.*); but the principal probably receives 4,000 francs (160*l.*); the first four or head professors 3,000 francs (120*l.*) each; the almoner 2,000 francs (80*l.*), and the junior professors from 1,000 francs to 2,000 francs (40*l.* to 80*l.*) each.

* This sum is called the "Dotation."

† This is called the "Rétribution."

The third college we shall instance is that of a small country town in an agricultural district, but in a part of France where the inhabitants are prosperous and tolerably well informed—Chinon, in the department of Indre-et-Loire, not far from Tours. Here the officers of the communal college consist of a Principal or head master; a Professor of Philosophy, or head professor; a Professor of Mathematics; a Professor of Rhetoric and second class; a Professor of third class; and a Professor of fourth class; a Professor of fifth and sixth classes; and a Professor of elementary class (filled by the principal). In this college Greek is probably hardly, if ever, taught, and of mathematics only the mere rudiments. A boy entering the lowest class at 7 or 8, would arrive at the rhetoric class by 12 or 13, and would reach the philosophy class by 14 or 15. The number of pupils in this college is 62, being 41 boarders (which shows, from the large proportion to the total number, that the college is one of reputation and well conducted) and 21 day pupils. The support of the institution depends entirely on the town, which gives 9,800 francs (392*l.*) per annum for this purpose: the amount of fees from day pupils, &c., is 4,689 francs (187*l.*). This would give an average remuneration to the officers of the college of nearly 1,700 francs (68*l.*) per annum; but the principal would receive about 3,000 francs (120*l.*); the three head professors about 2,000 francs (80*l.*) each; and the remainder from 1,000 francs to 1,200 francs (40*l.* to 48*l.*) each.

In some of the more remote districts of the country, and in very small towns, where a communal college exists, the number of officers consist of a principal and only two or three professors; and the instruction given, seldom goes beyond the mere elements of Latin, French, History, &c. The number of pupils too, in these extreme cases, does not exceed 15 or 20. One remarkable instance, which may be taken as the *minimum* or “vanishing point” of a college, may be quoted in that of the small town of Montivilliers near Havre. Here there are nominally a principal and one professor of the third, fourth, and fifth classes: but this solitary chair is filled by the principal himself, so that the college contains only one functionary! And yet by an effort of administrative industry, which is probably unequalled, he has 108 pupils in his college! viz., 56 boarders, and 52 day pupils; but what sort of care and inspection he can exercise over his boarders it is difficult to imagine. The town of Montivilliers allows only 132 francs (5*l.* 6*s.*) per annum, and the 52 day pupils pay 1,100 francs (44*l.*) in annual fees, or about 20 francs (16*s.*) each.*

In all colleges, as well as in all *institutions* and *pensions*, no corporeal punishment is allowed; but the pupils are kept in order and obedience by literary tasks, (*pensa*.) or by confinement during hours of recreation. In some of the ecclesiastical schools, however, in a few *pensions*, and in female schools, a kind of corporeal infliction is still tolerated; the refractory pupils being frequently compelled to stand erect for a certain number of hours; or else to remain kneeling, (said to be a very painful infliction,) or else to stand with the hand stretched out or raised above the head, &c. These kinds of punishments, like the old *estrapade*, or blows on the palm of the hand with a strap, (which is still commonly resorted to by the village schoolmasters,) are gradually falling into dis-

* *Almanach de l'Université*, 1840, p. 211.

use ; and in the capital are seldom, if ever, resorted to. Rewards are bestowed abundantly, or, which is the same thing, exemptions from the chances of future punishments : the system, too, of good and bad marks, carefully registered in books for that purpose, is in almost all cases adopted. In all schools and colleges throughout France, there is only one holiday or half holiday in the week allowed, viz., Thursday ; and only one vacation in the year, viz., from the beginning or middle of August, to the beginning or middle of October. On Sunday the Roman Catholic pupils are always taken to church early in the morning, from 7 to 9 o'clock ; but they rarely attend divine service a second time during the day. In some cases exercises suited to the observance of Sunday are given to them ; but in general, as is the case in all Roman Catholic countries, the day is observed as a festival, especially in the evening, and is equivalent to a holiday. In general the hours kept in all French establishments of education are very early, six being the hour of rising in winter as well as summer, and in some instances five ; the hour of rest is at eight or nine. Much attention is paid to the *surveillance* of pupils ; it being a fundamental principle of French education, that children should never be left alone, and this extends to the night as well as the day, a teacher in all cases sleeping in the same dormitory with the pupils. The arrangements for sleeping are much superior in nearly all cases to what they are in England ; but those for eating are as much inferior ; and far too little attention is paid to the personal cleanliness and habits of the pupils.

In all French schools, all regular payments are made quarterly, and in advance.

Admissibility of Pupils into the Classes of Colleges.—A ministerial decree of the 22nd of September, 1840, directs that in all colleges, royal and communal, (*de plein exercice*), no pupil shall be moved up from a lower to a higher class, without fulfilling the following conditions ; the move from the seventh or lowest class to the sixth being excepted. At the end of the scholastic year (August) lists shall be made out by order of merit of all the pupils in each class ; and those who are in the first three quarters of each list, can alone be allowed to move up to the class next above, at the commencement of the scholastic year, (October,) unless at that period, an examination conducted by the provisor and censor of studies is passed satisfactorily. This examination is specially directed to be severe, and to be conducted in the presence of the rector of the academy, or an inspector ; and all pupils are required to return to their colleges the day before the business of the year opens.

A subsequent regulation has been issued for the teaching of living languages. It directs that instruction in this branch shall be divided into three courses—elementary, intermediate, and superior ; and that two lessons of an hour each shall be given each week in each of these divisions.

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

The French Government received in November, 1841 a report from the Minister of Public Instruction, occupying no less than 14 columns of the *Moniteur*, on the state of primary instruction in France, up to the end of 1840, from which we make the following extracts :—

“ The total number of the communes of France is 37,295. According

to the last statistical report, in 1837, there were then 29,613 single or united communes provided with schools. In 1840, 3,486 had been added, making a total of 33,099 schools, and leaving 4,196 communes unprovided with schools. In the departments of the Ardennes, Doubs, Nord, Haut-Rhin, Seine, Somme, and Vosges, there is at least one public school in every commune. Other departments are very near being in possession of the same advantage. Thus, in 1840, in the Hautes-Alpes there was only one commune out of 189 without a school; in the Bas-Rhin 3 out of 543; in the Oise 5 out of 698; in the Meuse 5 out of 570; in the Pas-de-Calais 8 out of 903; in the Haute-Saône 7 out of 651; in the Meurthe 8 out of 714; in the Aveyron 3 out of 256; in the Aube 6 out of 447. The departments, which last year were most in want of schools were the Allier, where there were 141 communes out of 323 without any; the Corrèze 137 out of 202; the Indre 124 out of 249; Morbihan 111 out of 228; Finisterre 121 out of 281; Cotes-du-Nord 149 out of 374; Dordogne 184 out of 585; Saône-et-Loire 170 out of 593; Charente 107 out of 453; Puy-de-Dôme 115 out of 445; Haute-Garonne 138 out of 596; Eure 125 out of 791. The progression in the number of scholars has been equally remarkable. In 1837 there were in the communal and private schools under masters 1,547,194 boys and 412,636 girls, and in those under mistresses 23,350 boys and 707,511 girls. In 1840 there were in the communal and private schools under masters 1,607,013 boys and 444,356 girls, and in those under mistresses 34,394 boys, and 795,916 girls. In 1837 the superior communal and private primary schools received 9,414 scholars, and at present 15,285, being an increase of 5,871. These scholars are not admitted until they have shown on examination that they have acquired the instruction given in the primary elementary schools. They gain in the superior schools more extended instruction in the French language, history, geography, and arithmetic; are taught book-keeping, linear-drawing, and perspective, and receive considerable instruction in geometry, natural history, physics, and experimental chemistry. This general education is in most of these schools divided into three annual courses, and is completed with studies in some of the living languages. Moral and religious instruction is given in these and in all the schools. Among these schools there are 194 in which the system of instruction is complete, that is to say, it affords the scholars all the various branches, some of which are especially calculated for the peculiar wants of the district. Several of them have in this respect attained a remarkable degree of importance and utility. Those of Nantes, Caen, Lille, Rennes, and some others, are cited as examples. In 1837 there were 26,370 schools exclusively appropriated to Roman Catholics, 563 to Protestants, 28 to Jews, and 2,059 were mixed. In 1840 there were 28,018 Roman Catholic, 677 Protestant, 31 Jewish, and 2,059 mixed schools. The number of schools under communal masters, which in 1837 amounted to 29,313, is now increased to 30,785. Among these, the schools confined to boys amount to 12,486, and those common to both sexes to 18,299.

Besides the regular schools, the administration has also turned its attention to adult classes for the evenings and Sundays, for the instruction of men whose early education has been neglected. In 1837 there were 1,856 adult schools in 1,547 communes, giving primary instruction and some practical notions of the sciences to 36,966 workmen of all trades

and employments. In 1840 the number of adult classes, spread over 3,090 communes, amounted to 3,403, being nearly double, and had 68,508 attendants. This instruction, however, is too much neglected in many of the departments. There is not a single adult class in the Aisne, Basses-Alpes, Ardennes, Arriège, Aude, Aveyron, Cantal, Charente-Inférieure, Cher, Creuse, Doubs, Gers, Lot, Lozère, Haute-Marne, Nièvre, Puy-de-Dôme, Pyrénées-Orientales, Haut-Rhin, Somme, Var, and La Vendée. In other departments, on the contrary, they are numerous. There are 190 adult classes in the Gironde, 120 in the Indre-et-Loire, 194 in the Isère, 194 in the Loir-et-Cher, 183 in the Loiret, 183 in the Maine-et-Loire, 188 in the Meurthe, 303 in the Meuse, 219 in the Orne, 240 in the Seine-et-Oise, 149 in the Deux-Sevres, and 155 in the Vienne. The city of Paris expends annually in the maintenance of adult classes a sum of 57,744 francs (2,310*l.*), an example which is imitated by communes in several departments. Thus the Municipal Councils have voted for this purpose in the Pas-de-Calais, 7,100 francs (284*l.*); Gironde and Marne, 3,400 francs; Indre-et-Loire, 2,830 francs; Loire-Inférieure, 2,600 francs; Meuse, 2,242 francs; Nord and Oise, 2,100 francs; Seine-et-Oise, 2,800 francs (112*l.*). Several Councils-General have made sacrifices for the instruction of adults, and the aggregate of their votes in 1840 for this object was 31,796 francs (1,272*l.*).⁴

In 1837, there were in 172 communes 261 infant schools, (*salles d'asile*,) receiving 29,214 children. There are now to be found in 352 communes, 553 infant schools, receiving in all 5,986 children. There are, therefore, at this time, 294 infant schools receiving 21,474 children, more than there were in 1837. The communes have devoted to these humble establishments the sum of 245,631 francs (9,825*l.*). The Chamber of Deputies added a credit of 200,000 francs (8,000*l.*) for the same object to the budgets for 1841 and 1842. This sum is distributed as an encouragement among those communes which have been at the expense of purchasing ground and erecting buildings for these schools, and it has been a means of increasing their number. It has already produced a good effect. Independent of several recent establishments, there are at this time 79 proposals for new infant schools laid before the Royal Council of Public Instruction for its examination.

The number of communal teachers who receive fixed salaries not amounting to 300 francs (12*l.*) a year each, is 25,051. Of these 23,048 receive only 200 francs (8*l.*) each, and 2,003 have salaries between 200 francs and 299 francs (8*l.* and 12*l.*). The total number of persons employed in primary schools is 62,859, namely, (males,) lay teachers 38,368; religious ditto, 2,136; (females) lay teachers 11,984; religious ditto, 10,371. The number of persons employed as inspectors of schools is 168.

Besides the 76 normal schools, 4 of which are directed by ecclesiastics, and 2 entrusted to brethren of the Doctrine Chrétienne; there have been established 3 schools of the same order, specially appropriated to non-catholic communions, and directed by Protestant pastors. The maintenance of these normal schools causes an annual expenditure of 1,538,203 francs (61,528*l.*), borne by families, by the departments, and by the state in the following proportions, namely, by families, 268,520 francs (10,740*l.*); by communes, 23,890 francs (955*l.*); by the departments, 1,081,348 francs (43,254*l.*); and by the

state, 164,445 francs (6,578*l.*). In 1837 the normal schools gave instruction to 2,406 persons intended for teachers; a number increased at the present day to 2,684, which is thus divided:—Free boarders, 311; free out-boarders, 37; bursars of the state, 208; communes 81; departments, 2,054. In 1837 the normal schools sent out 860 masters. In 1840 the number was not greater, on account of the length of time employed by some of the schools in more extended studies, a great many of them having been detained for a third year. Nevertheless, the supply of new teachers has increased, since out of the 860 students who were qualified in 1837, only 671 have been placed; while out of the 860 qualified in 1840 there are 713 at the heads of schools. This proves that normal instruction is producing more and more immediate results. Of the 860 sent out in 1840, diplomas of capacity for giving superior primary instruction have been granted to 130, and for giving elementary primary instruction to 730. The 713 normal students who have been placed are thus divided, 660 in communal schools and 53 in private schools. The average number of places vacant for communal teachers was, three years ago, 2,356, but at present they are no more than 2,308. The normal schools provide for about one-third, the other two-thirds are filled by other candidates. Endeavours have been made for educating on a regular system female teachers, independent of the religious female corporations, and several schools have been in consequence established.

In the autumn of 1840, M. Boulay, Deputy for the Meurthe, presented an interesting report to the Society of Elementary Instruction, on the actual state of primary instruction in France; which though superseded by the official report given above, is still not without interest as a subsidiary document, and we therefore extract from it the following results.

It is only since the revolution of July, 1830, that primary instruction has been seriously prosecuted in France, though it was partially encouraged during the periods of the empire and the restoration. Within the last 10 years, however, more than 8,500 communes have been provided with schools, and the number of scholars has been increased by 1,000,000. Between 5,000 and 6,000 communes have had school-houses erected; 3,000 have abandoned the individual, or old, method of instruction, and more than 9,000 have adopted the mixed method. The number of new normal schools established within the same period, has been 61, and the number of teachers of both sexes has been considerably augmented. There were only 575 infant schools in 321 communes up to the period of the report, frequented by only 50,000 children, whereas, the total number of children that would be capable of admission, was upwards of 2,000,000. Ten departments possess no infant schools whatever. The number of boys and girls who ought to attend primary schools of different kinds is estimated at 5,000,000; but not more than 3,000,000 attend in the winter, nor more than 1,800,000 in the summer. It is reckoned that more than half of the girls are deprived of all education whatever; and 14,000,000 individuals of both sexes, can neither read nor write. About 2,000 adult classes of various kinds exist in France, but the number of pupils attending them is not more than 50,000. The regimental and naval schools are frequented by about 60,000 non-commissioned officers and privates; so that on the whole there are not much more than 100,000 adult pupils in the whole country.

It is proved by the annual returns of the military conscription lists, that of the young men who annually enter the army and navy, nearly one half can neither read nor write.* There are numerous parochial establishments called *curries*, at which work of different kinds is taught to young persons of both sexes, principally girls; but they are not enumerated in the official returns made to the Minister of Public Instruction. The prison schools are far from being as complete as they ought to be, but great progress has been made in the Metropolitan Prison for Juvenile offenders, and by the Society for reclaiming offenders of that class; useful instruction is afforded them, and with the aid of an agricultural and manufacturing establishment founded by this society at La Motte, near Tours, numbers of boys have been made useful members of society. Similar societies are forming, and one in particular, at Marseilles, has been productive of great good.

Among other deficiencies pointed out in this report, the following may be noticed:—"More than 3,600 communes are without elementary schools. More than 21,000 communes have only one school for both sexes; and more than 26,000, in spite of the law, do not possess the freehold of the buildings in which their schools are established. To purchase these buildings, or to erect new ones, would require a sum of upwards of 72,900,000 francs (2,880,000*l.*). Among these buildings which the communes have purchased, there are few which are healthy, dry, light, spacious, and suitable for the purpose to which they are applied, while the greater part are in a lamentable condition for all articles of furniture. Although there are 74 primary normal schools for male teachers now in activity, they are inadequate to supply the number of new teachers annually required, amounting to about 1,500, whereas the utmost they can annually furnish is 900, a number which from various causes is much over the probable and effective amount. There are only two or three primary normal schools for female teachers; and there are no regularly appointed institutions for educating the teachers in *nurses* and infant schools. On the whole, out of 52,000 elementary schools, communal and private, it is supposed that not more than 14,000 are well directed. Out of 322 superior primary schools, the prescribed course of instruction is given in a complete manner only in 173."—The principal causes of this defective state of primary instruction, is attributed to the carelessness or inefficiency of the local committees of inspection, and also to the indefinite terms of the law as to the objects of such instruction.

The remuneration of primary teachers is in general too small, and they are forced to occupy themselves in other ways for their support. Thus the average salary for male primary teachers throughout France is 487 francs (19*l.* 10*s.*) per annum, but in seven departments it does not amount to 400 francs (16*l.*), and in the Haute-Marne it is only 306 francs (12*l.* 5*s.*), sums which are evidently inadequate; and after 30 years service, the primary teacher will have for his sole possession, resulting from his profession, only 300 francs (12*l.*), arising from the annual drawback of one-twentieth of his salary.

Among the subjects of primary or popular instruction, not taught in the primary schools, M. Boulay regrets to find French history and geography, agriculture, singing, the elements of linear-drawing, gymnastics, and civic instruction.

* Journal, vol. liii. p. 181.

It should be observed upon the above report that the central administration is well inclined to promote primary education, but that notwithstanding the power of the administration, and the stipulations of the law, it is impossible to bring the rural population into a rapid state of activity upon such a subject; and it is desirable that the government should be met at least half way by the communes upon this point.

On the other hand it should be remarked that the schools of the Christian Brethren, and the instruction given by the curates of the different parishes, tend to fill up the void complained of; while in towns and the larger communes, the religious sisterhoods do a great deal towards instructing the female children; and the results of the efforts of all these classes of schools, do not enter into any official report or return.

In the report of M. Boulay, complaint is made that there were at that time only two or three primary schools for female teachers, and no regular institutions for educating the teachers in *ouvroirs* and infant schools; but it must not be inferred from this, that female teachers are admitted into such institutions without any proof of capacity being required. It will be seen by the official returns, that each department possesses a commission of examination for all primary teachers, besides local commissions of inspection. These commissions frequently include ladies among their members, and in some instances special commissions of ladies exist; they all have the office of examining all primary teachers, male as well as female, before admission to their posts. By a ministerial order, dated October 15, 1841, it is directed that all candidates for the places of female teachers in primary schools and *ouvroirs*, shall be previously examined in all the subjects of primary instruction, and also in elementary notions of French history and French geography. They are also to produce (as may be taken for granted) specific testimonials of good conduct.

We shall conclude with a statement of the number of establishments for conducting the several branches of instruction in France, and of the number of scholars attending them, in the year 1840, as far as the official returns afford the information.

The 27 academies of France, with the departments and number of communal colleges included in each, are as follows:—

Aix, 12 . . .	{ Bouches-du-Rhône Basses-Alpes Var	Cahors, 9 . . .	{ Lot Lot-et-Garonne Gers
Amiens, 10 . . .	{ Aisne Oise Somme	Clermont, 11 . . .	{ Puy-de-Dôme Allier Cantal
Angers, 18 . . .	{ Maine-et-Loire Mayenne Sarthe	Corsica, 2 . . .	{ Isle of Corsica Côte-d'Or
Besançon, 14 . . .	{ Doubs Jura Haute-Saône	Dijon, 10 . . .	{ Haute-Marne Saône-et-Loire
Bordeaux, 8 . . .	{ Gironde Charente Dordogne	Douai, 23 . . .	{ Nord Pas-de-Calais
Bourges, 10 . . .	{ Cher Indre Nièvre	Grenoble, 8 . . .	{ Hautes-Alpes Drôme Isère
Caen, 15 . . .	{ Calvados Manche Orne	Limoges, 9 . . .	{ Haute-Vienne Corrèze Creuse
		Lyons, 6 . . .	{ Ain Loire Rhône

Metz, 5 . . .	{ Ardennes Moselle Aude	Pau, 8 . . .	{ Basses-Pyrénées Hautes-Pyrénées Landes
Montpellier, 14 .	{ Aveyron Hérault Pyrénées-Orientales	Poitiers, 14 . .	{ Charente-Inférieure Deux-Sèvres Vendée
Nancy, 14 . .	{ Meurthe Meuse Vosges	Rennes, 20 . .	{ Côte-du-Nord Finistère Morbihan
Nîmes, 10 . .	{ Ardèche Gard Lozère	Rouen, 9 . . .	{ Ille-et-Vilaine Loire-Inférieure Eure
Orléans, 5 . .	{ Vaucluse Indre-et-Loire Loir-et-Cher	Strasbourg, 12 .	{ Seine-Inférieure Haut-Rhin Bas-Rhin
Paris, 20 . . .	{ Loiret Seine Aube	Toulouse, 9 . .	{ Ariège Haute-Garonne Tarn
	{ Eure-et-Loir Marne Seine-et-Marne		{ Tarn-et-Garonne
	{ Seine-et-Oise Yonne		

Of the 42* royal colleges there is one established at each of the seats of the academies, excepting Aix. That in Corsica is at Bastia. The remaining royal colleges are at Auch, Avignon, Le Puy, Marseilles, Moulin, Nantes, Pontivy, Rheims, Rhodéz, Tournon, Tours, and Versailles, with 5 in Paris.

Under the head of Superior Instruction are included 5 classes of faculties, viz. of Theology, Law, Medicine, Mathematical and Physical Sciences, and Letters.

Of Theology there are 8 faculties, established at Paris, Aix, Bordeaux, Lyons, Rouen, Strasbourg (for Lutheran Protestants), Toulouse, and Montauban (for Calvinist Protestants).

Of Law there are 9 faculties, the relative importance of which may be estimated by the number of students attending them in 1840, viz.:—

Paris	{ Not stated.	Grenoble	178
Aix	190	Poitiers	193
Caen	163	Rennes	203
Dijon	157	Strasbourg	96
		Toulouse	603

Of Medicine there are 3 faculties, viz. at Paris, Montpellier (259 students), and Strasbourg (110 students). There are also 18 secondary schools of medicine, with the following number of students attending each:—

Amiens	38
Angers	25
Arras	45
Besançon	28
Bordeaux	53
Caen	35
Clermont	20

* The number of royal colleges and of communal colleges here stated does not quite agree with the number given in a previous part of this report (page 2). The former have been taken from a work by M. Emile de Girardin, entitled "De l'Instruction Publique en France," published anterior to the official report from which Mr. Jones obtained his information, and have been referred to for the purpose of showing the departments and places in which they are established.—Kn.

Dijon	14
Grenoble	17
Lyons	105
Marseilles	31
Nancy	21
Nantes	36
Poitiers	40
Rennes	38
Rheims	{ Not stated.
Rouen	
Toulouse	79
	110

The 4 military hospitals of instruction at Strasbourg, Paris, (Val-de-Grâce,) Lille, and Metz, together with the 5 marine hospitals at Brest, Cherbourg, Rochefort, Toulon, and Lorient are also considered as secondary schools of medicine.

Of Sciences there are 10 faculties, viz. at Paris, Bordeaux, Caen, Dijon, Grenoble, Lyons, Montpellier, Rennes, Strasbourg, and Toulouse.

Of Letters there are 10 faculties, viz. at Paris, Besançon, Bordeaux, Caen, Dijon, Lyons, Montpellier, Rennes, Strasbourg, and Toulouse.

The courses usually given in these different faculties have been enumerated in the description of the Academy of Paris, given in the Report, already referred to, on the State of Superior Education in Paris,* and the information there furnished with regard to the forms of graduation, and examinations in the several faculties, is generally applicable to the other academies. The same remark applies also to the description there given of the royal colleges. It is, therefore, only necessary to observe that in certain colleges throughout the kingdom there are courses of lectures for instruction in special objects, viz. in commerce and manufactures, at Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles, Metz, Rouen, and Troyes; in commercial law, at Lyons; in mathematics, applied to arts and commerce, (preparatory courses,) at Nantes; with courses for naval pupils at Lorient, and a course for midwives at Angers.

A full account has been given elsewhere of the government of the Academy of Paris. Each provincial academy is under a rector, sometimes also an honorary rector, 1 to 3 (usually 2) inspectors, with sometimes an honorary inspector, a secretary, and an academic council, varying in number from 11 to 21 members.

For the superintendence of the primary schools there are in each department an inspector, a sub-inspector, a commission for examining teachers for the department, with several commissions of inspection for the arrondissements; to which are added, in several departments, committees of ladies, for the inspection of infant-schools, and other purposes.

The numbers of colleges, and of professors attached to them, of *institutions*, *pensions*, normal schools, adult classes, and primary schools, with the number of scholars attending them, in each department, in the year 1840, are given in the following table, as far as the official returns admit; but it is confessedly imperfect, and does not afford the means of making an abstract of the total number of children under instruction in any class of schools in France. It is not, however, wholly devoid of value, as it affords considerable information with regard to a majority of the departments.

* Vol. iv. p. 57.

Departments.	Academy to which belonging.	Secondary Instruction.				"Institutions."	Boarding Schools, "Pensions."	Normal Schools.	Adult Classes.		Primary Instruction.	
		Colleges.	Professors.	Masters of Studies.	Scholars.				Classes.	Pupils.	Superior.	
											Schools.	Scholars.
Ain . . .	Lyons . .	2	17	..	249	1	12	1	2	93	3	<i>b</i>
Aisne . . .	Amiens . .	5	45	..	469	1	23	1	{ 3	125
Allier . . .	Clermont . .	3	31	3	253	..	5	1	9g	238
Alpes (Basses)	Aix . . .	5	27	..	373	..	5	1	2	83
Do. (Hautes)	Grenoble . .	3	21	..	196	1	2	<i>b</i>
Ardèche . . .	Nismes . .	2	26	6	328	2	2	1
Ardennes . . .	Metz . . .	3	24	..	296	..	4	1	10	287
Ariège . . .	Toulouse . .	3	30	2	375	..	3	1	<i>a</i>	..
Aube . . .	Paris . . .	1	14	4	475	..	12	1	<i>a</i>	..
Aude . . .	Montpellier . .	2	15	..	160	1	10	1	1	30
Aveyron . . .	Ditto . . .	6	51	5	521	..	4	1	1	40	2	93
Bouches-du- Rhône . . .	Aix . . .	4	46	9	848	2	29	1	4	265
Calvados . . .	Caen . . .	5	64	17	1,209	..	12	1	7	<i>b</i>
Cantal . . .	Clermont . .	3	27	..	438	..	1	1	<i>a</i>	..
Charente . . .	Bordeaux . .	3	25	1	269	2	14	1
Do. Inférieure	Poitiers . .	4	42	1	565	1	14	..	11	..	4	<i>b</i>
Cher . . .	Bourges . .	3	23	6	296	2	5	1	2	57
Corrèze . . .	Limoges . .	4	39	..	415	..	3	1	36	569
Corse . . .	Corsica . .	3	31	5	318	1	..	1	1	..
Côte-d'Or . . .	Dijon . . .	8	58	12	903	..	13	1	3	<i>b</i>
Côtes-du-Nord . .	Rennes . .	5	41	2	550	..	1	..	45	..	{ 5	245
Creuse . . .	Limoges . .	2	24	..	213	1	3	1	1	..	1g	<i>a</i>
Dordogne . . .	Bordeaux . .	3	31	..	286	1	13	1	1	<i>b</i>
Doubs . . .	Besançon . .	4	37	7	509	..	7	1 & 1 model	1 school	..	4	147
Drôme . . .	Grenoble . .	3	20	..	220	1	7	1 & 1 model	1 school	..	5	<i>b</i>
Eure . . .	Rouen . . .	3	17	..	21	..	9	1	4	160
Eure-et-Loir . .	Paris . . .	{ 2	17	5	171	2	6	1	<i>a</i>	..
		{ 1	10	..	<i>a</i>							
Finistère . . .	Rennes . .	6	63	12	897	..	2	..	47	1,346	{ 5	191
Gard . . .	Nismes . .	5	45	11	568	..	12	1	1g	68
Garonne(Haute)	Toulouse . .	2	23	6	690	4	32	1	2	90	<i>a</i>	..
Gers . . .	Cahors . .	{ 2	16	..	144	1	12	1	10	..
		{ 1	14	4	<i>a</i>							
Gironde . . .	Bordeaux . .	3	34	15	610	4	22	1	2	..
Hérault . . .	Montpellier . .	7	68	6	842	..	15	1	4	530	8	350
Ille-et-Vilaine . .	Rennes . .	5	38	7	839	1	6	1	{ 5	..
											10g	..
Indre . . .	Bourges . .	{ 3	20	2	154	..	5	1	3	182
		{ 1	4	..	<i>a</i>							
Indre-et-Loire . .	Orléans . .	3	28	6	308	1	7	..	149
Isère . . .	Grenoble . .	3	31	4	409	2	13	1 & 1 model	1 school	..	10	450
Jura . . .	Besançon . .	7	50	2	575	..	4	1	42	165	9	231
Landes . . .	Pau . . .	4	41	..	322	..	2	1
Loir-et-Cher . .	Orléans . .	2	18	..	192	3	3	1	159	..	5	..
Loire . . .	Lyons . . .	3	28	6	364	1	3	1	1	40	3	..
Do. (Haute)	Clermont . .	2	23	..	307	..	1	1	<i>a</i>	..
Do. (Inférieure)	Rennes . .	3	25	7	397	1	9	..	5	..	1	80
Loiret . . .	Orléans . .	2	23	7	462	..	9	1	188	1,683	2	..
Lot . . .	Cahors . .	3	31	5	438	..	8	1	2	<i>b</i>

a No returns.*b* Scholars included with those in Elementary Schools.*c* Not distinguished.

Primary Instruction.											Population in 1835.
Elementary.											
Commercial.					Private.				Infants.		
Scholars.	Girls.		Mixed.		Boys.		Girls.		Schools.	Scholars.	
	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.			
056	255	9,615	c	1	110	346,188
166	136	8,937	758	41,877	c	5	530	527,095
a	309,270
400	123	4,886	c	159,045
..	302	15,132	c	1	120	131,162
..	39	21,136 ^d	39	..	226	..	1	100	353,752
784	68	7,148	c	q	..	306,861
..	1	..	260,536
..	253,870
706	21	1,436	69	2,365	116	3,391	1	80	281,088
310	17	1,270	94	1,957	505	16,220	13	480	370,951
899	218	10,105	5	770	362,325
500	275	18,000	6	500	501,775
..	a	..	262,117
776	65	3,330	c	a	..	365,126
683	175	7,524	c	3	..	449,649
231	84	4,202	c	1	112	276,853
165	72	3,477	c	3	141	302,433
..	268	a	..	207,889
680	208	24,442	c	4	520	355,624
253	147	10,034	c	a	..	605,563
864	91	3,640	c	4	..	276,234
050	122	4,546	c	a	..	487,502
455	304	14,319	298	14,283	c	1	200	276,274
..	716	30,000*	3	265	305,499
995	173	7,650	5	600	424,762
..	285,058
865	180	7,134	c	48	2,341	546,955
..	48	34,393 ^d	105	..	283	..	12	1,120	366,259
..	7	..	454,727
..	250	..	229	boys	and	girls	1	40	312,882
049	..	12,254	c	17	2,607	555,809
500	64	5,950	198	6,200	302	7,400	18	1,940	357,846
..	237	25,886 ^e	c	3	645	547,249
289	57	2,940	c	a	..	257,350
..	117	c	91	..	304,271
129	331	22,142	2	205	573,645
..	4	145	834	45,921	c	4	163	315,355
998	78	2,608	c	18	327	284,918
..	76	c	51	..	244,043
354	234	17,522	c	2	409	412,497
..	295,384
225	184	8,630	c	4	..	470,768
..	105	27,092	c	67	1,605	316,189
..	383	14,497	a	..	287,003

Not Private. c Including Superior. f Female Adult Classes. g Superior Girls Schools.

Departments.	Academy to which belonging.	Secondary Instruction.				"Institutions."	Boarding Schools, "Pensions."	Normal Schools.	Adult Classes.		Primary Instruction.	
		Colleges.	Professors.	Masters of Studies.	Scholars.				Classes.	Pupils.	Superior.	
											Schools.	Scholars.
Lot-et-Garonne.	Cahors . .	5	32	1	230	1	14	1	2	100	5	b
Lozère . . .	Nismes . .	1	9	..	90	1	3	1
Maine-et-Loire .	Angers . .	6	44	7	509	..	5	1	38	872	5	194
Manche . . .	Caen . . .	7	67	4	981	..	6	1	5	..
Marne . . .	Paris . . .	5	60	12	574	..	15	1	a	..
Do. (Haute)	Dijon . . .	5	38	1	323	..	6	1	2	b
Mayenne . . .	Angers . .	4	36	..	393	..	2	1	40	1,200	3	80
Meurthe . . .	Nancy . . .	6	62	8	761	1	10	1	4	185
Meuse . . .	Ditto . . .	5	38	5	395	..	5	1	5	88
Morbihan . . .	Rennes . .	6	57	4	675	..	7	..	9	..	5	138
Moselle . . .	Metz . . .	3	32	8	633	1	11	1	4	..
Nièvre . . .	Bourges . .	3	19	..	203	..	7	1 & 2	model	schools	1	..
		1	4	..	a							
Nord . . .	Douai . . .	18	131	13	1,689	2	24	1	14	880
Oise . . .	Amiens . .	3	24	..	289	1	7	1	2	140
Orne . . .	Caen . . .	4	35	2	446	1	6	2	35	b
Pas-de-Calais .	Donai . . .	5	50	1	444	2	14	1	103	1,680	7	225
Puy-de-Dôme .	Clermont .	6	57	6	797	..	12	1	a	..
Pyrénées (Basses) .	Pau . . .	2	23	7	313	2	15	2 & 2	model	schools	9	305
Do. (Hautes)	Ditto . . .	4	32	2	297	..	5	2	3	114
Do. (Orientales)	Montpellier	2	16	..	215	1	5	1	1g	30
Rhin (Bas) . .	Strasburg .	7	57	5	650	1	4	1	6	b
		1	11	..	a							
Do. (Haut) . .	Ditto . . .	6	56	..	607	..	6	1	9	b
Rhône . . .	Lyons . . .	2	?	?	785	8	23	1	13 m. 10 f.	795 382	4	b
Saône (Haute) .	Besançon .	4	34	2	356	..	10	1	4	124
											1g	60
Saône-et-Loire .	Dijon . . .	7	59	5	590	1	11	1	2	..
Sarthe . . .	Angers . .	5	37	..	612	1	3	1	75	1,438	5	180
Seine . . .	Paris . . .	a	a	a	a	2	280
Seine-et-Marne .	Ditto . . .	4	28	6	249	2	11	1	a	..
Seine-et-Oise .	Ditto . . .	3	32	14	561	2	32	a	..
Seine-Inferieure	Rouen . . .	6	48	13	818	1	39	1 & several	model	schools	2	117
Sevres (Deux) .	Poitiers . .	4	28	..	296	2	7	1	9	1,293	2	b
Somme . . .	Amiens . .	3	31	7	522	1	12	1 & 1	model	school	4	180
											3g	150
Tarn . . .	Toulouse .	3	32	..	314	3	10	1	a	..
Tarn-et-Garonne	Ditto . . .	3	24	1	320	2	5	1	a	..
Var . . .	Aix . . .	3	34	..	494	..	15	1	4	127
Vaucluse . . .	Nismes . .	5	42	11	437	..	9	1
Vendée . . .	Poitiers . .	3	32	3	290	..	3	1	not stated	2,000	2	b
Vienne . . .	Ditto . . .	4	36	12	663	..	8	1	121	1,444	1	b
Do. (Haute)	Limoges . .	4	34	9	529	1	10	1	15	357
Vosges . . .	Nancy . . .	6	43	2	362	..	3	1	4	134
Yonne . . .	Paris . . .	6	50	5	487	a	a	1	a	..

a No returns.

b Scholars included with those in Elementary Schools.

c Not distinguished.

Primary Instruction.											Population in 1836.
Elementary.											
Commercial.					Private.				Infants.		
Boys.		Girls.		Mixed.	Boys.		Girls.				
Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	
..	561	17,426	1	50	346,400
9,640 ^d	24	9,023 ^d	26	..	349	..	1	180	141,733
14,600	320	15,000	c	7	1,000	477,270
30,000	655	35,000	c	3	390	594,382
..	345,245
22,935	152	20,686	a	..	255,969
12,920	199	11,610	c	2	376	361,765
18,647	258	17,718	426	26,563	39	3,478	57	6,326	6	920	424,366
..	210	14,726	21	1,339	with	boys	2	140	317,701
8,663	106	4,920	c	3	285	449,743
..	227	c	8	..	427,250
..	320	..	c	3	..	297,550
32,200	515	24,800	c	13	2,602	1,026,417
5,885	85	5,374	667	38,717	4	204	398,641
19,000	261	15,000	2	300	443,688
58,865	60	8,250	150	5,600	175	7,350	16	2,310	664,654
..	589,438
31,933	250	9,236	c	2	336	446,398
18,885	128	5,199	c	2	150	244,170
4,935	4	140	67	2,022	87	1,911	a	..	164,325
..	95	88,000	14	1,433	561,859
..	110	68,718	3	..	447,019
23,223	312	18,851	c	7	765	482,024
22,671	361	12,289	305	16,180	c	a	..	343,298
16,500	?	15,900	a	..	538,507
13,992	264	13,673	c	4	1,282	466,858
17,849	113	14,547	..	1,269	353	16,850	348	11,525	41	5,532	1,106,891
..	325,881
..	449,582
36,235	341	22,411	c	10	1,362	720,525
20,147	124	7,259	c	2	130	304,105
..	180	11,125	980	60,342	c	2	200	552,706
..	3	..	346,614
..	3	..	242,184
11,391	236	7,716	e	2	130	323,404
10,334 ^d	54	6,101 ^d	55	..	49	..	3	270	246,071
13,173	133	7,316	c	1	75	341,312
9,050	64	4,789	c	11	..	288,002
6,517	118	3,270	2	192	293,011
15,086	132	12,888	370	23,400	15	689	6	135	7	766	411,034
..	355,237
Total											33,540,916

^d Including Private. ^e Including Superior. ^f Female Adult Classes. ^g Superior Girls' Schools.

On the Prices and Fluctuations of Grain in Prussia and England, from 1816 to 1841. By RAWSON W. RAWSON, Esq., Hon. Sec.

[Read before the Statistical Society of London, 21st March, 1842.]

I HAD the opportunity of bringing before the Society, in the first volume of the Journal, a series of tables showing the prices of the principal kinds of grain in Prussia during each year from 1816 to 1837, together with some interesting results drawn from those tables by M. Dieterici, our distinguished foreign Member, which had appeared in the 'Prussian State-Gazette.' I am now enabled, through the kindness and promptitude of the same gentleman, to complete that series up to the close of the year 1841; and as the interest of these tables has greatly increased since the period at which they were first published, I have converted the Prussian measure and prices into their equivalents according to the English standards,* and have appended the prices of the same kinds of grain in England, with the view of offering a few observations upon the comparative prices in the two countries.

It must be premised that there is a difference in the mode of taking the averages in the two kingdoms. In England the averages are calculated weekly upon the total quantities sold and their total sale amount in the 150 towns from which returns are obtained; and thus the element of quantity has its due weight in forming the average. But in Prussia the quantity is not taken into account, and the prices given for that country are the mean of monthly averages furnished by the local authorities in a number of towns possessing considerable corn-markets. Hence an extreme price in the smallest market quoted has as much influence on the average as the price of the largest; or to illustrate the case, the price in a market in which 50 quarters are sold at 50s., will have as much weight in framing the average as a town with a sale of 5,000 quarters at 60s. This is clearly a great defect: a true average can only be furnished when the quantity sold, as well as the price at which it is sold, is taken into account: but it does not appear that this circumstance is likely to affect materially the deductions I shall attempt to draw from these tables; for it may be confidently asserted that in tables thus arranged occasional errors will balance one another, and with regard to a comparison of the price in the different provinces, the uniformity of the method applied to all will prevent any considerable discrepancy from this source.

The prices recorded in Prussia relate to wheat, rye, barley, and oats, and are shown separately for each of the provinces of that kingdom, except Brandenburg and Pomerania, which, on account of the similarity of their agricultural economy, are here united together. I shall commence by showing the differences of price in the several provinces; and in order to bring into view the local circumstances which are likely to have an influence in creating these differences, I shall give a brief sketch of the economical position of each province.

Prussia Proper, divided into East and West Prussia, is the largest

* A Prussian scheffel = 1·504, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ of an imperial bushel, and therefore $5\frac{1}{2}$ Prussian scheffels = 1 imperial quarter. The average rate of exchange at Dantzic upon London, from 1816 to 1838, was Sgr. 203 $\frac{1}{4}$ per £ sterling.

province in the total area. Its extent is 24,927 square miles, or more than one-fifth of the monarchy. It is the most northerly of the Prussian provinces, and extends from the frontier of Russia, having the Baltic for its northern boundary, to the westward of the Gulf of Dantzic. The surface of the country is almost one unbroken level; sandy plains extending along the sea-shore: the soil is generally fruitful, and adapted to the growth of wheat. The population is not dense, being 63 to a square mile: the proportion of the town to rural population is 1 to 3 $\frac{1}{4}$. Agriculture is almost the sole employment of the inhabitants, with the exception of the most common domestic manufactures for their own use, carried on in their private dwellings during the intervals of out-door employment, or by the unemployed members of the families. An active trade is carried on in the seaports, but no manufactures of any consequence exist there. Rye-bread is the staple food of the inhabitants: wheaten bread is seldom used. In many parts of the province potatoes are largely consumed. Wheat is one of the chief articles of export. From Dantzic alone there were exported annually, on the average of the five years 1836-40, 363,000 quarters of wheat, and 54,000 barrels of flour, besides 123,000 quarters of other grain: but a large proportion of this—two-thirds, according to Mr. Meek—appears to be brought from Poland.

Posen is an inland province, bounded on the east by Poland, on the north by West Prussia, on the west by Brandenburg, and on the south by Silesia. Its extent is 11,352 square miles; its population 98 to the square mile. The proportion of town to rural population is 1 to 3 $\frac{1}{4}$. The soil is generally very fruitful, and much wheat is cultivated, chiefly for exportation. Some trifling woollen manufactures are carried on in the small towns, but these are decaying; while agriculture, on the contrary, is rapidly advancing.

Pomerania extends from the boundary of Prussia Proper, along the shores of the Baltic, westward to the frontier of Mecklenburg. Its area is 12,000 square miles, with 63 inhabitants to each mile. The proportion of town to rural population is 1 to 4. The province is essentially agricultural; it produces much corn, but more rye than wheat, although the latter plant flourishes here, and there is a surplus cultivated for exportation. The quantity of wheat shipped at Stettin, the chief port of the province, during the five years 1836-40, averaged 138,000 quarters annually: in 1840 alone the export was 426,300 quarters, but of this a large portion doubtless was brought from Posen and Silesia. The peasantry live upon rye-bread; they consume also a considerable quantity of potatoes, which are more extensively cultivated here than in Prussia Proper.

The three provinces of Prussia Proper, Posen, and Pomerania, with the Mark of Brandenburg, forming one half of the area of the kingdom, and containing about one-third of the population, may be considered as one vast plain, yielding a large surplus of agricultural produce for exportation. As about one-fourth of the total quantity of wheat produced in Prussia is exported, and as almost the whole of that produced in the other provinces is retained by them for their own consumption, it follows that considerably more than the fourth part of that grown in the above three provinces is exported.

In these tables Brandenburg has been united with Pomerania, on account of the general resemblance of the agricultural productions of

the two provinces, as well as their local affinity, although there are other circumstances which, as far at least as the price of grain is concerned, would seem to require that it should be separated. Brandenburg is an inland province, lying south of Pomerania, north of Silesia, with Posen on the east, and Saxony on the west. It contains 15,467 square miles, with a population of 107 to each mile. If, however, Berlin, which contains 275,000 inhabitants, be excluded, the proportion will be 87 to the square mile. The proportion of town to rural population is 10 to 14 including Berlin, and 10 to 22 excluding that city. Thus it will be seen that in Brandenburg a much larger proportion of the inhabitants dwell in the towns than in the preceding three provinces, in which the urban population was as 1 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ and 4. Another great difference exists with regard to the employment of the inhabitants. In this province manufactures are carried on to a large extent, and create great activity both of internal communication and foreign commerce. Among the principal manufactures of the province are those of woollens at Luckenwalde, Luckau, Brandenburg, Kottbus, Züllichau, &c.; of cottons, at Berlin, Potsdam; of silk goods at the same, with Gleissen, &c.; of leather at the same, with Brandenburg and Frankfurt; of refineries of sugar at the same, with Frankfurt; of iron and steel at Berlin and Neustadt-Eberswalde; of hardwares, porcelain, paper, &c. at Berlin. The following comparison of the extent of manufactures carried on in Brandenburg, the three provinces of Prussia Proper, Posen, and Pomerania, and the whole kingdom, in 1837, will show this still more clearly:—

	Total In Prussia.	In Brandenburg.	In Prussia Proper, Posen, and Pomerania.
Quantities of raw cotton imported, lbs.	13,102,991	4,797,537	525,414
— cotton-yarn do. lbs.	20,102,628	5,504,341	55,976
Cotton looms in constant employmentNo.	39,324	4,898	101
Woollen spindlesNo.	401,210	128,867	53,427
Ditto looms in constant employment No.	16,937	4,621	2,082
Linen looms in constant employment,No.	35,877	5,644	4,312
Ditto occasional dittoNo.	246,294	24,877	156,420
Silk looms at workNo.	14,111	2,315	none.

The Oder and Elbe, with their tributaries, intersect the province, and afford great facilities to commerce. On the banks of these rivers, and in some other parts, there are fertile districts; but in general the soil is sandy, and not very favourable to cultivation. Corn is not grown for exportation; on the contrary, there is a considerable importation, but chiefly for the supply of Berlin.

Silesia is the most southerly of the eastern provinces, bounded on the north by Posen, on the east by Poland, south by Moravia, and west by Bohemia and the kingdom of Saxony. It is intersected throughout its whole length of 230 miles by the Oder, the breadth of the province not exceeding 73 miles. Its area is 15,695 square miles. The population is *much denser than* in the preceding provinces, being 160 to the square

mile; but the proportion of town population is smaller, being only 1 to 4½. This, however, is not occasioned by a deficiency of towns, but by the greater density of the rural population. As Silesia is separated from Moravia and Bohemia by a high range of mountains, that part of the province partakes of a mountainous or hilly character. The valleys, however, are fertile; and the upper half of the province is a rich plain. Much corn is grown, and in favourable seasons the surplus is exported to Bohemia.* As, however, the mountainous districts yield but a scanty supply of grain, while they are inhabited by a dense population, the production of the province in unfavourable years is not equal to its consumption, and grain is consequently then imported. Manufactures are carried on to a great extent in Silesia; one-third of the whole number of looms employed on linen goods in Prussia are at work in this province, viz., 12,799 out of 36,879. Of cotton looms also a still larger proportion, viz., 17,739 out of 39,324. The manufacture of woollen yarn and cloth is also extensive. But all of these are for the most part carried on by the hand, and in the houses of the peasantry, although latterly some extensive factories fitted with machinery have been established.

Saxony, situated to the west of Brandenburg, has an area of 9,747 square miles, and a population of 152 to the square mile. The proportion of town to rural population is as 10 to 19. Manufactures and commerce are actively carried on here. Of the former, those of woollens flourish at Burg, Magdeburg, Barby, Langensalze, Naumburg, and Zeitz. The cotton manufacture is very important, and is increasing steadily; its chief seats are Magdeburg and Zeitz, Eilenburg, Suhl, and Langensalze. The manufacture of linens is not considerable, but that of leather very extensive. The iron and steel works of Suhl have a wide reputation. The soil is fruitful, and yields sufficient to supply the dense population; there is even an export of corn from the districts of Magdeburg and Thuringia.

Westphalia is the smallest of the Prussian provinces. Its extent is 7,786 square miles; its population is 166 to the square mile; the proportion of town to rural population 1 to 3½. Westphalia exhibits great contrasts in its different divisions, as well in the physical features and fertility of the country, as in the character of the inhabitants. It possesses important silk, cotton, linen, iron, and steel manufactures. It produces enough food for the consumption of the province, but no surplus for exportation. The population is dense, and, compared with that of the eastern and northern provinces, is in a better condition, and possesses a greater command of comforts and luxuries.

The Rhenish province, it need scarcely be said, is one of the chief seats of manufacturing industry in the Prussian kingdom, particularly of the silk-trade. Its extent is 10,308 square miles; the population is 232 to the square mile, or two-fifths more numerous than in Westphalia, Silesia, or Saxony, and more than twice as numerous as in the other provinces. The province, indeed, is more populous than any other country in Europe, except Belgium and Saxony. The proportion of town to rural population is as 10 to 29; but it must be observed that a considerable portion of the latter are employed in manufactures. The

* *M. Dieterici* does not notice any exportation by the Oder through Stettin.

soil is generally fruitful, and produces sufficient corn for the consumption of the province, but no surplus for exportation.

Thus, then, of the eight provinces of Prussia, it appears that three are almost wholly agricultural, and produce more grain than they consume, namely, Prussia Proper, Posen, and Pomerania. In Brandenburg manufactures predominate, and grain is imported. In Silesia agriculture and manufactures are so blended together, the peasantry employing their time alternately in one or the other pursuit, that it is difficult to define the general character of the province. It appears, however, that the production does not usually exceed the demand of the inhabitants. Saxony and Westphalia contain extensive manufactures: the former exports a small portion of grain; the latter none. In the Rhenish provinces manufactures predominate, and there is no export of grain.

Throughout the whole of Prussia rye is the staple food of the inhabitants; the consumption of wheat is equal only to about a fourth of that of rye. By the Prussian law a duty is levied on grain when ground, so that there are means of forming an estimate of the comparative consumption of the different provinces, and this M. Dieterici has furnished for one year in his valuable work.*

According to his statement, the average annual consumption of each inhabitant in the 124 towns in which a tax on grinding and slaughtering cattle (*mahl-und-schlachtsteuer*) is levied, was as follows:—

	Rye. lbs.	Wheat. lbs.	Total. lbs.	Proportion of Wheat to total quantity.
In 6 towns of E. Prussia .	232	50	282	17 per cent.
6 „ W. Prussia .	262	47	310	15 „
17 „ Posen .	259	50	310	16 „
14 „ Pomerania .	240	75	316	23 „
20 „ Silesia .	266	44	310	14 „
19 „ Brandenburg .	212	82	294	27 „
18 „ Saxony .	277	65	343	19 „
7 „ Westphalia .	223	73	296	24 „
17 „ Rhine Province	226	68	294	23 „
Average . .	240	65	306	21 per cent.

Upon this table it is necessary to remark that the small number of towns from which the average is taken in Westphalia occasions the proportion of wheat in that province to be unduly raised by a very large consumption of that grain in one town, Münster. The proportion in E. Prussia is in the same manner depressed by a very small consumption in Tilsit, which, as it is the smallest proportion recorded in any town, may be specially mentioned, viz., only 6 lbs. of wheat to 305 lbs. of rye. The largest proportion in any town was at Bromberg, in Posen, where the consumption was 108 lbs. of wheat to 124 lbs. of rye; but the largest actual consumption of the former grain was at Magdeburg, viz., 119 lbs., with 248 lbs. of rye. The high proportion in Brandenburg is not occasioned by the consumption of Berlin, where the proportion is only 88 lbs. of wheat to 180 lbs. of rye;—the deficiency

* *Uebersicht des Verkehrs und Verbrauchs im Preussischen Staate und im Deutschen Zollverande. Berlin, 1838.*

in quantity of both grains being probably supplied by flour brought from a distance. It must, however, be observed that this statement refers to the consumption of the town population, among whom the use of wheat is doubtless more general than among the inhabitants of the rural districts. The proportion, therefore, of wheat to rye must be taken at considerably below one-fifth, the amount above stated; and consequently, in examining the differences in the prices or fluctuations of the staple food in England and Prussia, the same kinds of grain must not be compared in the two countries, but the wheat of England with the rye of Prussia: the consumption of wheat in the latter country being, indeed, of less consequence as a luxury than that of rye in England, which, as far as it is used, is applied to the sustenance of the working classes. There is no means of ascertaining the actual extent of the consumption of rye bread in England, but it may be inferred from the fact that the annual sales of rye in England returned to the corn-office during the last fourteen years have only averaged 18,314 quarters; and that, while 17,566,270 qrs. of foreign and colonial wheat and wheat-flour have been entered for consumption between 15th July, 1828, and 5th January, 1842, only 453,103 qrs. of foreign rye have been entered during the same years, although the high price and limited supply of wheat during portions of this period have presented a strong inducement to the consumption of rye.

In examining the prices of the various kinds of grain in England and Prussia, and forming averages for the purpose of comparison, it has been thought unnecessary to take the average upon the whole period over which the tables extend. In the first place, it appeared desirable to omit the years 1816-20, when, in consequence of the complete failure in both countries of the harvest of 1816, prices were so signally deranged that they did not recover their level for four years afterwards; and, in the second place, as a period of fourteen years offers a sufficient range for forming a fair average, it appeared to be an object to examine the prices which have prevailed under the corn-law existing in this country since 1828, and respecting the effects of which various statements have been put forward, founded, in many instances, on insufficient data, the imperfection of which these tables will in some measure supply.

With regard, first, to the prices of grain in Prussia. The average of Rye during the fourteen years was 21s. 2d. per imperial quarter (see p. 45): in the several provinces it was as follows:—

Provinces.	Price per Imperial Quarter.	Higher than average.	Lower than average.
	<i>s. d.</i>		
Prussia Proper	17 2	..	19 per cent.
Posen	18 3	..	13 „
Brandenburg and Pomerania	20 2	..	4 „
Silesia	19 3	..	9 „
Saxony	21 8	2 per cent.	
Westphalia	25 2	19 „	
Rhine Province	26 11	27 „	
Average	21 2		

The average of the first five, or agricultural provinces, was 18s. 8d.; of the last three, or manufacturing provinces, 24s. 7d., or nearly one-third

(31½ per cent.) higher in the latter part of the kingdom. This difference presents an important consideration, bearing upon the comparative disadvantage under which the manufacturer in this country labours in respect of the price of food. In Prussia the price ranges much higher in those provinces in which manufactures chiefly flourish. In England it may be doubtful whether the case is the same. The facility of communication, the superior development of commercial enterprise, and, as regards Lancashire, the proximity of the cheap markets of Ireland, have tended to prevent prices from rising above the average in the principal manufacturing districts. On the other hand, in the chiefly agricultural and most productive districts of England the quality of the grain is usually above the average, in consequence of which, and their proximity to the metropolis and other large centres of consumption, the prices are rather above than below the average.

The average price of Wheat in Prussia during the fourteen years was 31s. 3d. per Imperial quarter. The fluctuation in the several provinces was less than that of rye. (See page 45.) The average price was:—

Provinces.	Price per Imperial Quarter.	Higher than average.	Lower than average.
	<i>s. d.</i>		
In Prussia Proper	30 1	..	4 per cent.
Posen	29 1	..	7 „
Brandenburg and Pomerania	31 2	..	
Silesia	27 8	..	11 „
Saxony	29 3	..	6 „
Westphalia	34 3	9 per cent. 20 „	
Rhine Province	37 7		
Average	31 3		

In respect of wheat, it appears that the prices are lowest in the inland provinces, which have no immediate market for their surplus production; and that this circumstance is probably one cause of the difference, may be inferred from the comparatively high price in Prussia Proper, where, as has been shown in a previous table, the consumption of wheat is small, and the export is considerable. The average price in Westphalia and the Rhine province was 35s. 11d., in the other five provinces, 29s. 5d.; a difference of 22 per cent.

Of Barley, the average price was 15s. 11d. (See page 46.) It was—

Provinces.	Price per Imperial Quarter.	Higher than average.	Lower than average.
	<i>s. d.</i>		
In Prussia Proper	12 5	..	22 per cent.
Posen	14 1	..	11 „
Brandenburg and Pomerania	14 9	..	7 „
Silesia	15 2	..	5 „
Saxony	16 3	2 per cent. 17 „	
Westphalia	18 8		
Rhine Province	20 6	28 „	
Average	15 11		

The correspondence of the differences in the several provinces as

regards this grain and rye is very striking ; and affords a strong reason to suppose that the same circumstances affect the price of the two articles.

The average price of Oats during the whole period was 11s. 4d. (See page 46.) The uniformity of the prices in the several provinces, with only two exceptions, is remarkable :—

Provinces.	Price per Imperial Quarter.	Higher than average.	Lower than average.
	<i>s. d.</i>		
In Prussia Proper	9 0	..	20 per cent.
Posen	11 0	..	3 „
Brandenburg and Pomerania	11 8	3 per cent.	
Silesia	11 0	..	3 „
Saxony	11 7	2 „	
Westphalia	12 7	11 „	
Rhine Province	11 10	4 „	
Average	11 4		

With regard to the exceptions, M. Dieterici states that the cause of the price being higher in Westphalia than in the Rhine province is the greater number of horses in the former. The same circumstance would tend to operate to a still greater extent in Prussia Proper, where, on the contrary, the price is considerably below the average. Some counteracting influence must, therefore, be at work. Probably the fact of Lithuania being a great breeding district, and the advantages which the province offers for the cultivation of grain, are sufficient to account for the reduced price. The number of horses to a square mile in each province was, in 1834—

Prussia	17	Average 13.
Westphalia	16	
Saxony	15	
Posen	11	
Rhine Province	11	
Brandenburg	11	
Pomerania	11	
Silesia	10	

The average prices, therefore, of each kind of grain, with the highest and lowest price in the several provinces, were as follows :—

	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.
	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
Wheat	31 3	37 7 in the Rhine province.	27 8 in Silesia.
Rye	21 2	26 11 „	17 2 in Prussia Proper.
Barley	15 11	20 6 „	12 5 „
Oats	11 4	12 7 in Westphalia.	9 0 „

The average prices in England during the same period were—

	Average per Imperial Quarter	Above Price in Prussia.		Above Price in Rhine Province.	
		Amount.	Per Centage.	Amount.	Per Centage.
Of Wheat	<i>s. d.</i> 58 10	<i>s. d.</i> 27 7	88.	<i>s. d.</i> 21 3	56.
Rye	35 3	14 1	66.	8 4	31.
Barley	32 9	16 10	105.	12 3	59.
Oats	22 10	11 6	101.	11 0	93.

The difference, however, between the average prices of the two staples is very much greater: Wheat, in England, was nearly three times ($2\frac{1}{2}$) as dear as Rye in Prussia, or as 2·78 to 1·00: compared with Rye in the Rhine province, it was more than double ($2\frac{1}{2}$), or as 2·18 to 1·00.

The average of the four kinds of grain in Prussia was 19s. 11d. per imperial quarter; in England, 37s. 5d.; a difference of 87 per cent. In the first four provinces of Prussia it was 18s. 2d.; in the last three, 22s. 2d.; a difference of 22 per cent.

In considering, however, the relative prices of grain, and particularly of wheat, in the two countries, as bearing on the question of the effect which a free importation would be likely to have on the price in England, it must be borne in mind that the average in Prussia is formed chiefly on the prices of inland towns; that the cost of bringing wheat from the place of growth to Dantzic is stated to average 10s. to 12s. per quarter;* that three at least of the Prussian provinces have no surplus for exportation, but, on the other hand, import for their own consumption; and that a demand for wheat in England immediately leads to a great rise of price in Prussia. The extent of this action of English prices on those of Prussia will be presently adverted to.

The relative proportion of the value of the different kinds of grain in the two countries is very similar. If the four kinds be taken together, wheat bears exactly the same relation to the whole in both. Thus, if the prices of one quarter of each kind of grain be added together, the result will be that the per centage of each to the whole amount will be—

	In England.		In Prussia.
Wheat . . .	39·0	..	39·0
Rye . . .	23·5	..	26·5
Barley . . .	22·0	..	20·0
Oats . . .	15·5	..	14·5
	<u>100·0</u>		<u>100·0</u>

Rye, as might be expected, obtains a higher relative value in Prussia than in England; spring corn, comparatively less; but in wheat there is no difference. Taking the value of wheat as unity, which will not be quite fair, as it is not the staple in Prussia, there is some variation, but not to any great extent. If wheat be worth 1·00, the value of the other kinds of grain will be as follows:—

Rye in England,	0·60	In Prussia,	0·67
Barley ,,	0·55	,,	0·51
Oats ,,	0·38	,,	0·36

I now approach the question of fluctuation: a matter of double importance, as bearing, first, upon the welfare and ease of the labouring classes, apparently much more than the uniform maintenance of high prices, since wages may be fixed at a high rate to meet the latter, but

* "Deducting 12s. per quarter for the expense of bringing it (wheat) from the place of growth to Dantzic, including waste, which is generally very considerable, cost of the boats, which are broken up and sold for a trifle compared with their original cost (amounting perhaps to 400 or 500 thalers, whereas they are only sold for about 40), the expense of the peasants and other persons navigating them for a voyage, sometimes of three or four months, and returning back to Poland on foot. . . . This was generally considered as an average estimate of the expenses." (Mr. Meek, Parliamentary Papers, Sess. 1842, No. 7, p. 54.)

"It is generally understood that it costs 10s. per quarter to bring it down to Dantzic." (Ibid., p. 31.)

seldom fluctuate in proportion to the price of corn; and secondly, upon the effect of fiscal regulations in creating unsteadiness of price. Corn of all kinds pays alike in Prussia a fixed duty of 5*sg.* a scheffel, or 2*s.* 7½*d.* per imperial quarter; there is nothing, therefore, in the nature or amount of this duty to cause artificial variations of price in that country; and, with the exception of the effect produced in the value of wheat by occasional and large demands of that article for the English market, there does not appear any circumstance tending to create fluctuation in Prussia, except the natural and uncontrollable variations of the seasons. It is, therefore, an important result which a comparison of the prices in the two countries exhibits—that in all kinds of grain, the fluctuation, in whatever point of view taken, whether as regards the extreme extent of fluctuation, the suddenness of the change, or the frequent recurrence of inequalities,—in all these respects the fluctuation is equal or greater in Prussia during the period under observation than in England.

In order to state the case fairly, the first comparison should be between the two staples—wheat in England, and rye in Prussia. The small consumption of rye in England renders it improper to compare its prices with those of Prussia; and the same reason, together with the artificial fluctuation already mentioned as arising from an English demand, applies to wheat in Prussia. For the sake, however, of information, the results relative to both will be inserted.

It appears that, during the 14 years from 1828 to 1841, the greatest extent of fluctuation in the annual price of wheat in England has been 79 per cent.; of rye in Prussia, 88 per cent.; and of wheat in the same country, 80 per cent. The average of the annual fluctuations was—of wheat in England, 10·4 per cent.; of rye in Prussia, 10·3 per cent.; and of wheat in Prussia, 13·1 per cent. The greatest rise in any one year was—of wheat in England, 23 per cent.; of rye in Prussia, 37 per cent.; and of wheat in Prussia, 33 per cent. The greatest fall in any one year was—of wheat in England, 14 per cent.; of rye in Prussia, 25 per cent.; and of wheat in Prussia, 27 per cent. A tabular view of these facts may perhaps help to mark the differences:—

	Prussia.		England.	
	Wheat.	Rye.	Wheat.	Rye.
Extreme extent of annual fluctuation	Per Ct. 80	Per Ct. 88	Per Ct. 79	Per Ct. 38
Average annual amount of ditto	13·1	10·3	10·4	6·6
Greatest rise in any one year	33	37	23	19
Greatest fall in ditto	27	25	14	13

It may be asserted, apparently with some justice, that the demand for wheat in England in particular years tends to derange the prices of that grain in Prussia; for it appears that, in the years 1828-31, when this country took 1,425,721 quarters of wheat and wheat-flour from Prussia, the prices rose from 20*s.* 10*d.*, the average of the preceding three years, to 30*s.* 4*d.* in 1828, and continued rising to 1831, when it averaged 41*s.* 3*d.* In the next year,—there being still a considerable, though much reduced, demand for England,—the price fell to 33*s.* 10*d.*; and in the next year it fell further to 24*s.* 6*d.*, at about which amount it re-

maintained nearly stationary until 1838, when the bad harvest and high price in England, causing a demand for 585,973 quarters in that year alone, immediately drove it up from 24s. 11d. to 33s. 3d.; and an additional demand for 767,734 quarters in 1839 caused a further rise to 39s. 5d. The following statement will show the course of these transactions; and the effect of a drain of wheat will be better appreciated when it is shown that the whole consumption of that grain in Prussia does not, according to M. Dieterici's statement, before given, exceed 2,014,000 quarters annually. The population at the close of 1839 was 14,416,410; the annual consumption of each individual was given at 65 lbs. = 67 lbs. avoirdupois. Supposing, therefore, the wheat to weigh 60 lbs. a bushel, which is the ordinary weight of the description exported to England, the total consumption will be 2,014,375 quarters.

Years.	Prices of Wheat in England.		Imports of Wheat and Wheat-Flour into the United Kingdom from Prussia.	Prices of Wheat in Prussia.	
	s.	d.	Qrs.	s.	d.
1828	60	5	253,042	30	4
1829	66	3	353,958	34	11
1830	64	3	520,111	33	3
1831	66	4	298,610	41	3
1832	58	8	119,323	33	10
1833	52	11	93,121	24	6
1834	46	2	41,754	23	0
1835	39	4	13,890	24	0
1836	48	6	122,996	22	10
1837	55	10	350,252	24	11
1838	64	7	585,973	33	3
1839	70	8	767,734	39	5
1840	66	4	807,203	36	10

It appears too that during the previous period, in the years 1824 and 1825, when under the law of 1822, (by which the admission of foreign wheat was prohibited until the price in England reached 70s. 4d., and consequently there was no demand in England for Prussian wheat,) the price rose in this country from 53s. 4d. (in 1823) to 63s. 11d. and 68s. 6d., the price actually fell in Prussia from 27s. 9d. to 19s. 9d. and 18s. 2d.; apparently from the want of a market for the surplus produce of one or two abundant harvests, which under the law of 1828 this country supplied. The great rise of price in 1816-17 cannot be quoted in support of this view, as the bad harvest and consequent dearth of the former year was almost universal throughout Europe.

On the other hand it must be remarked, that during the last fourteen years, in which the English prices appear to have operated so materially on those of Prussia, a corresponding fluctuation may be observed in the prices of the Rhine province, *from which we import no wheat*, and which is quite detached from the eastern provinces of Prussia, and not in any way dependent upon them for a supply. The comparative extent of the fluctuations in the prices of Barley and Oats in the two countries is also opposed to the above view. The superior steadiness of the English prices is strongly exhibited in the following statement:—

	Barley.		Oats.	
	England.	Prussia.	England.	Prussia.
Extreme extent of annual fluctuation . .	Per Cent. 43	Per Cent. 60	Per Cent. 40	50
Average annual amount of ditto . .	9	12.6	7.1	10.2
Greatest rise in any year	25	32	15	28
Greatest fall in ditto	17	30	19	21

Prussia exports but a small quantity of these two kinds of grain to England, far too little to affect the prices in the former country.

The prices of Rye, likewise, of which England imports but an insignificant quantity, and during a period when a rise in the price of wheat did not exist, to which a sympathetic rise in that of rye could be attributed, do not bear out the position. The comparative fluctuations of this grain in Prussia, and of wheat in England, throughout the whole period of 26 years, is shown in the following table; from which it results that, while the extreme difference of annual fluctuation in England was 91 per cent., it was 158 in Prussia; and that, while the average annual fluctuation was 11 per cent. in England, it was 18 per cent. in Prussia: showing that the annual fluctuations are greater in the latter country by 63 per cent. than in England.

Years.	Average Prices per Imperial Quarter.		Per Centage Fluctuation upon the Average of 26 Years.		Per Centage Fluctuation in each Year upon the preceding Year.	
	Wheat in England.	Rye in Prussia.	Wheat in England.	Rye in Prussia.	Wheat in England.	Rye in Prussia.
	s. d.	s. d.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
1816	78 6	35 3	+ 25	+ 59	—	—
1817	96 11	45 11	+ 54	+ 107	+ 23	+ 30
1818	86 3	34 0	+ 37	+ 54	— 11	— 35
1819	74 6	25 11	+ 18	+ 17	— 13	— 23
1820	67 10	19 7	+ 8	— 11	— 9	— 24
1821	56 1	17 3	— 10	— 21	— 17	— 12
1822	44 7	19 2	— 28	— 13	— 20	+ 11
1823	53 4	21 6	— 15	— 2	+ 19	+ 12
1824	63 11	11 3	+ 1	— 49	+ 19	— 45
1825	68 6	10 9	+ 9	— 51	+ 7	— 8
1826	58 8	15 3	— 6	— 31	— 14	+ 41
1827	58 6	22 0	— 6	Nil.	Nil.	+ 44
1828	60 5	22 7	— 3	+ 2	+ 3	+ 2
1829	66 3	20 4	+ 5	— 8	+ 9	— 10
1830	64 3	21 11	+ 2	Nil.	— 3	+ 7
1831	66 4	29 0	+ 5	+ 31	+ 3	+ 37
1832	58 8	25 7	— 6	+ 15	— 11	— 11
1833	52 11	18 0	— 15	— 18	— 9	— 29
1834	46 2	16 11	— 26	— 23	— 12	— 6
1835	39 4	18 1	— 37	— 18	— 14	+ 7
1836	48 6	15 5	— 22	— 31	+ 22	— 13
1837	53 10	17 3	— 10	— 21	+ 15	+ 11
1838	64 7	23 8	+ 2	+ 7	+ 15	+ 37
1839	70 8	24 1	+ 12	+ 9	+ 9	+ 2
1840	66 4	22 11	+ 5	+ 4	— 6	— 5
1841	64 4	21 3	+ 2	— 3	— 3	— 7
Average	62 9	22 1	of { 14 years + 13 10 years + 30 12 ,, — 15 12 ,, — 30		11	18

*Extreme difference of annual fluctuation of Wheat in England 91 per cent.
Rye in Prussia 158 „*

Indeed, the fact is, with regard to rye, that the fluctuation was greater previous to 1828 (excluding even the years 1816-20) than since; and that during the earlier period occurred that remarkable case which has been already noticed elsewhere, in which the price fell 50 per cent. in two years, and rose 105 per cent. in the following two.* Between 1821 and 1828 the extreme annual fluctuation of rye in Prussia was from 10s. 9d. to 22s. 7d., or 109 per cent.; between 1829 and 1841, from 15s. 5d. to 29s., or only 88 per cent. During the corresponding periods the fluctuation in the annual price of wheat in England was 53 and 79 per cent. respectively.

It appears, therefore, on the whole, that the prices of grain are more steady in England than in Prussia; but that they usually fluctuate more or less in both countries in a similar direction during the same seasons, which will not be difficult of explanation, when it is considered that the most northerly province of Prussia is in the same parallel of latitude as the North Riding of Yorkshire—that Posen is in the same parallel as Norfolk—and Silesia as Sussex.

I shall conclude with a Table, framed with the view of showing the character of the fluctuations in the price of spring corn, and of comparing them with the fluctuations of the staples in the two countries.

Per Centage Fluctuation in each Year compared with the Year immediately preceding.

Years.	England.				Prussia.			
	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.
1829	+ 9.	+ 2.	- 1.	+ 1.	- 10.	+ 15.	- 8.	- 7.
1830	- 3.	+ 2.	Nil.	+ 7.	+ 7.	- 4.	+ 1.	+ 4.
1831	+ 3.	+ 11.	+ 16.	+ 3.	+ 37.	+ 24.	+ 32.	+ 27.
1832	- 11.	- 13.	- 13.	- 19.	- 11.	- 18.	- 3.	- 4.
1833	- 9.	- 4.	- 16.	- 20.	- 29.	- 27.	- 30.	- 21.
1834	- 12.	Nil.	+ 5.	+ 13.	- 6.	- 6.	- 7.	- 5.
1835	- 14.	- 8.	+ 3.	+ 5.	+ 7.	+ 4.	+ 20.	+ 10.
1836	+ 22.	+ 10.	+ 10.	+ 5.	- 13.	- 4.	- 14.	- 5.
1837	+ 15.	+ 4.	- 7.	Nil.	+ 11.	+ 9.	+ 4.	Nil.
1838	+ 15.	+ 1.	+ 3.	- 3.	+ 37.	+ 33.	+ 26.	+ 25.
1839	+ 9.	+ 19.	+ 25.	+ 15.	+ 2.	+ 18.	+ 8.	+ 1.
1840	- 6.	- 12.	- 7.	- 1.	- 5.	- 6.	Nil.	+ 9.
1841	- 3.	Nil.	- 9.	- 13.	- 7.	- 2.	- 15.	- 14.
Average	10.4	6.6	9.	7.3	10.3	13.1	12.6	10.2

From this it appears that the fluctuations of barley and oats have a much closer relation to one another in Prussia than in England, and correspond more closely, both in contemporaneity and average amount, to the fluctuations in the staple. In England there is by no means the same degree of sympathy in prices; and the average of the fluctuations of barley and oats is considerably below that of wheat. In Prussia, on the contrary, the fluctuations in the price of oats equal those of rye, while those of barley exceed them.

* Speech of the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, in the House of Commons, March, 1842. See Hansard's Parliamentary Debates.

WHEAT.										
Years.	Prices per Imperial Quarter in Prussia.								Prices per Imperial Quarter in England.	
	Prussia Proper.	Posen.	Brandenburg and Pomerania.	Silesia.	Saxony.	Westphalia.	Rhine Province.	Average.		
1816	s. d. 36 9	s. d. 41 4	s. d. 44 5	s. d. 49 10	s. d. 50 10	s. d. 58 0	s. d. 58 10	s. d. 48 7	s. d. 78 6	
1817	52 8	50 9	60 10	55 7	61 3	79 9	86 7	64 4	96 11	
1818	38 11	41 1	53 4	42 3	48 5	54 1	55 6	47 8	86 3	
1819	34 4	31 8	38 3	32 5	32 2	40 10	37 10	35 4	74 6	
1820	27 2	27 4	29 9	28 11	27 5	31 4	34 2	29 5	67 10	
1821	25 6	28 7	28 7	35 4	25 6	32 7	29 10	29 4	56 1	
1822	25 11	28 5	26 7	32 10	26 6	31 8	29 2	28 8	44 7	
1823	24 1	27 4	26 8	29 11	27 2	28 5	30 7	27 9	53 4	
1824	18 3	18 10	19 11	20 11	20 10	19 0	20 10	19 9	63 11	
1825	17 0	16 10	17 9	18 5	17 9	18 4	21 5	18 2	68 6	
1826	18 7	18 10	21 0	20 8	17 6	20 0	23 2	19 11	58 8	
1827	22 2	23 1	25 9	25 1	22 0	28 11	29 8	25 3	58 6	
1828	27 1	26 9	29 7	29 9	29 8	32 10	38 0	30 4	60 5	
1829	32 2	31 6	34 11	30 11	34 5	39 6	41 3	34 11	66 3	
1830	29 6	29 3	33 11	28 2	31 10	40 8	39 10	33 3	64 3	
1831	39 7	41 0	39 2	37 7	35 2	48 9	47 10	41 3	66 4	
1832	33 11	31 4	33 4	26 11	29 10	37 9	43 10	33 10	59 8	
1833	24 11	23 2	23 5	21 7	22 0	26 6	30 0	24 6	52 11	
1834	23 8	23 0	22 11	22 8	20 5	22 10	25 9	23 0	46 2	
1835	22 10	24 6	23 9	26 1	22 1	23 4	25 10	24 0	39 4	
1836	20 9	20 11	22 9	20 10	23 2	24 5	27 3	22 10	48 6	
1837	22 4	23 4	25 10	21 7	24 8	26 8	30 5	24 11	55 10	
1838	32 5	31 4	34 7	28 0	31 8	36 1	38 7	33 3	64 7	
1839	36 11	35 7	40 3	33 9	39 8	43 7	46 6	39 5	70 8	
1840	37 9	34 5	37 8	31 6	34 4	39 5	43 1	36 10	66 4	
1841	37 8	33 0	35 4	28 8	30 9	37 1	48 8	35 10	64 4	

RYE.										
1816	22 4	24 8	28 7	35 9	40 4	46 11	48 2	35 3	45 1	
1817	29 9	31 1	38 6	39 10	51 1	62 4	69 1	45 11	58 3	
1818	27 8	26 0	35 5	27 4	36 7	43 3	41 9	34 0	55 4	
1819	22 5	21 3	28 5	21 6	24 11	33 3	30 0	25 11	49 6	
1820	16 2	16 2	19 8	18 6	20 2	22 5	24 3	19 7	42 0	
1821	13 7	14 7	15 3	19 6	17 0	21 11	19 3	17 3	32 0	
1822	15 11	18 3	16 2	23 3	18 5	21 5	21 2	19 2	20 10	
1823	17 1	20 1	19 4	24 11	21 11	21 4	25 10	21 6	31 10	
1824	8 5	9 4	11 0	12 8	12 7	11 8	13 6	11 3	41 5	
1825	9 2	8 7	10 11	9 8	10 8	11 6	15 1	10 9	42 3	
1826	13 9	13 4	16 1	14 2	14 3	16 2	19 0	15 3	41 1	
1827	17 3	19 7	22 1	22 6	21 0	26 5	25 3	22 0	40 2	
1828	14 8	19 7	20 1	24 3	24 10	26 4	28 5	22 7	34 2	
1829	14 1	16 6	19 0	19 9	21 8	24 2	27 2	20 4	34 10	
1830	14 8	18 4	19 5	21 4	20 4	30 11	28 6	21 11	35 10	
1831	22 4	27 11	27 1	25 8	26 3	37 10	35 11	29 0	40 0	
1832	20 10	22 1	24 11	21 3	25 2	30 4	34 5	25 7	34 7	
1833	17 7	14 11	17 1	15 0	18 3	20 10	22 8	18 0	32 11	
1834	16 11	15 4	17 2	16 5	16 2	17 5	19 1	16 11	32 9	
1835	17 6	17 0	19 2	17 2	17 4	19 1	19 9	18 1	30 4	
1836	12 5	12 1	16 0	11 10	17 2	18 0	20 4	15 5	33 4	
1837	14 0	14 3	16 8	14 0	19 0	18 10	24 0	17 3	34 9	
1838	20 6	20 7	22 9	21 1	25 8	26 4	29 2	23 8	35 1	
1839	16 2	19 1	21 5	22 0	28 11	30 3	31 3	24 1	42 0	
1840	17 3	19 8	20 7	21 1	23 10	27 4	30 7	22 11	37 0	
1841	21 0	19 5	20 9	18 5	18 11	24 9	25 10	21 3	36 9	

BARLEY.										
Years.	Prices per Imperial Quarter in Prussia.									Prices per Imperial Quarter in England.
	Prussia. Proper.	Posen.	Brandenburg and Pomerania.	Silesia.	Saxony.	Westphalia.	Rhine Province.	Average.		
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1816	14 0	16 7	20 10	25 11	26 8	32 10	31 9	24 1	33 11	
1817	18 5	19 11	26 8	29 8	37 10	42 2	49 4	32 0	49 4	
1818	20 4	19 10	26 5	20 11	29 4	31 4	30 11	25 7	53 10	
1819	17 5	16 8	22 3	16 8	20 3	28 0	25 5	20 11	45 9	
1820	11 2	13 2	15 11	13 11	15 7	18 7	19 6	15 4	33 10	
1821	8 8	10 9	11 9	14 11	13 4	16 2	14 5	12 10	26 0	
1822	11 1	12 9	11 8	17 3	15 3	14 8	16 9	14 2	21 10	
1823	13 4	15 7	14 0	18 4	16 4	16 9	20 5	16 4	31 6	
1824	6 6	12 10	8 9	9 4	8 11	10 3	10 10	9 7	36 4	
1825	7 0	12 7	8 8	7 8	9 0	10 3	12 9	9 8	40 0	
1826	10 6	10 9	12 2	10 7	11 2	13 7	14 9	11 11	34 4	
1827	13 9	15 2	16 7	16 7	15 4	20 3	19 0	16 8	37 7	
1828	10 5	15 1	14 2	19 2	16 10	17 9	21 2	16 4	32 10	
1829	9 9	12 6	14 3	16 4	16 2	17 0	19 2	15 0	32 6	
1830	9 7	13 5	13 11	15 11	14 9	20 3	19 3	15 3	32 7	
1831	15 11	19 11	17 4	18 4	18 1	26 9	24 11	20 2	38 0	
1832	15 10	17 9	18 1	16 7	18 11	22 2	27 3	19 6	33 1	
1833	11 7	10 11	12 2	11 3	14 6	16 4	18 9	13 7	27 6	
1834	11 8	11 8	12 5	12 2	12 5	13 4	14 10	12 7	29 0	
1835	13 7	14 5	15 3	15 6	14 10	16 6	15 11	15 1	29 11	
1836	10 2	11 1	12 11	10 3	14 6	15 6	16 5	12 11	32 10	
1837	10 11	11 2	12 11	11 0	14 8	14 10	18 7	13 5	30 4	
1838	14 5	14 6	16 4	15 5	17 8	18 6	22 3	17 0	31 5	
1839	12 5	14 10	16 10	18 4	22 3	20 11	23 3	18 4	39 6	
1840	13 7	15 5	16 2	17 9	19 0	21 9	25 3	18 4	36 5	
1841	14 4	14 8	13 10	14 3	13 3	19 7	19 9	15 8	32 10	
OATS.										
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1816	11 0	13 7	15 3	18 7	17 7	19 10	17 10	16 3	27 2	
1817	14 5	14 9	19 9	20 3	21 2	25 1	26 3	20 3	32 5	
1818	15 3	14 7	19 6	16 6	22 3	20 5	17 1	17 11	32 5	
1819	12 6	12 2	16 9	12 9	16 0	20 2	17 7	15 4	28 2	
1820	9 0	10 6	12 9	11 2	12 3	13 3	14 2	11 10	24 2	
1821	6 11	7 10	9 5	10 6	10 8	10 11	8 7	9 3	19 6	
1822	7 7	9 11	9 9	12 8	11 7	10 4	10 9	10 4	18 1	
1823	9 9	11 8	11 3	13 9	13 1	13 0	12 11	12 2	22 11	
1824	5 4	6 0	7 1	7 1	6 9	7 3	7 2	6 8	24 10	
1825	5 5	5 9	6 7	6 3	6 8	7 7	9 1	6 9	25 8	
1826	8 5	8 2	9 7	8 8	8 10	10 7	10 11	9 3	26 8	
1827	10 9	11 0	12 6	12 4	11 4	13 6	12 2	11 11	28 2	
1828	7 8	10 11	11 4	13 8	11 6	12 4	13 3	11 6	22 6	
1829	7 2	9 7	11 1	11 6	11 5	11 8	12 2	10 8	22 9	
1830	7 2	10 8	11 1	12 2	10 10	13 11	11 9	11 1	24 5	
1831	12 0	15 4	13 7	13 2	12 4	18 1	15 0	14 2	25 4	
1832	11 4	13 1	13 5	10 8	13 5	15 11	17 0	13 6	20 5	
1833	8 4	9 2	10 5	8 2	11 7	13 0	13 4	10 7	18 5	
1834	8 5	10 1	10 0	10 7	9 4	10 8	11 2	10 0	20 11	
1835	9 2	11 1	11 9	11 2	11 0	11 7	11 6	11 0	22 0	
1836	7 0	8 4	10 1	7 4	11 0	10 9	11 6	9 5	23 1	
1837	7 6	8 9	10 0	8 4	10 5	9 5	11 8	9 5	23 1	
1838	9 7	11 10	12 9	11 7	12 6	11 10	12 8	11 10	22 5	
1839	9 1	10 11	12 11	11 9	14 4	13 0	12 1	12 0	25 11	
1840	10 7	13 2	13 3	13 2	12 4	14 8	14 6	13 1	25 8	
1841	10 11	11 8	11 3	11 3	9 8	11 10	12 4	11 3	22 5	

Progress of the Two Sicilies under the Spanish Bourbons, from the Year 1734-35 to 1840. By JOHN GOODWIN, Esq., Her Majesty's Consul for Sicily.

Of all the Italian States, none is so imperfectly known to the English reader as the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, than which none is richer and more fertile in historical recollections, architectural remains, and natural phenomena.

The battle of Cannæ in ancient days, and the revolt of Mass Aniello in modern, cloud the brilliant page of Neapolitan history. The earlier annals of Sicily are stained with the massacre of Selinus, and the latter with the horrors of the Sicilian Vespers. Herculaneum, Pompeii, and Pæstum still consecrate the soil of Naples. The fields of Sicily are still hallowed by Segesta, Selinus, and Agrigentum. The plains of Naples are as often overflowed by the lava of Vesuvius, as the vallies of Sicily are devastated by the fiery torrents of Etna.

To depict such scenes—to delineate such monuments—and to describe such calamities—is the province of the historian, the antiquary, and the natural philosopher. The purport of the following pages is of a less ambitious character. To trace the progress of Neapolitan and Sicilian improvement from the accession of the Spanish Bourbons to the reign of the present sovereign, is the author's humble endeavour.

The past state of the kingdom has been described, on the authority of Colletta, Bianchini, Aceto, and Lauza,* whose works have been carefully consulted for authentic information. The present condition of the Two Sicilies has been delineated from observation and inquiry made by the author, during a residence of nine years in both divisions of the kingdom.

CHAPTER I.

Description of the Two Sicilies—Situation and Extent—Face of the Country—Soil and Climate—Chief Cities—Monies, Weights and Measures.

The kingdom of the Two Sicilies consists of the *Hither* Sicily, commonly called the Realm of Naples, and the *Further* Sicily, usually denominated the Realm of Sicily Proper.

Naples.—The Realm of Naples forms the southern extremity of the Italian peninsula, and extends from 38° to 43° of north latitude, and from 14° to 18° of east longitude, from Greenwich. Its greatest length is about 500 miles, and its greatest breadth about 150. Its area is about 30,000 square miles. It is traversed from north to south by the Apennines, from which chain proceed several branches, forming capes and headlands on the eastern and western coasts. It is washed by the Adriatic Sea on the eastern side, by the Ionian on the southern and by the Tuscan on the western side.

The principal rivers, as the Tronto and Ofanto on the eastern coast, and the Garigliano and Volturno on the western, are mere mountain torrents, which overflow their banks in winter and spring, and shrink into rivulets in summer and autumn. The chief lakes are, the great

* Bianchini—*Storia delle Finanze di Napoli*. 3 vols. 8vo. Napoli, 1834-35. Colletta—*Storia del Reame di Napoli*. 2 vols. 8vo. Capolago, 1836. Aceto—*De la Sicile, et de ses Rapports avec l'Angleterre*. 1 vol. 8vo. Paris et Londres, 1821. Lanza—*Considerazioni Sulla Storia di Sicilia*. 1 vol. 8vo. Palermo, 1836.

lake of Fucino or Celano, and the small but celebrated lakes of Averno and Lucrino.

Of the four provinces into which the territory was formerly divided, Abruzzo, in the north, is mountainous and barren; the Terra di Lavoro, in the centre, is beautiful and fertile; Apulia, in the east, has an immense plain, called the *Tavoliere di Puglia*, which serves as a sheep-walk; and Calabria, on the south, is rich and well wooded.

The climate in the mountainous parts is as cold and bracing, as it is sultry and relaxing in the plains. On the western side, the shores are marshy and unwholesome; on the eastern, dry and perfectly healthy. Towards the end of October, the tops of the Apennines are covered with snow, which usually lies till the following summer. In some parts of Abruzzo, the winter lasts eight months of the year; in the Terra di Lavoro and Apulia, the cold weather continues only four or five months; and in Calabria it seldom exceeds three. In the severest season, the plains of Terra di Lavoro are thickly strewn with wild flowers of the richest and most variegated hue.

The chief cities are Naples, the metropolis of the kingdom, Caserta, Salerno, Potenza, Avellino, Foggia, Bari, Lecce, Cosenza, Catanzaro, Reggio, Campobasso, Chieti, Aquila, and Teramo, the capitals of the fifteen provinces into which the realm of Naples is now divided.

Accounts are kept in ducats and grains. Ten grains make a carline, worth about 4*d.* and 10 carlines make a ducat, worth about 3*s.* 4*d.*

Heavy goods are weighed by the cantaro and the rotolo. 100 rotoli make a cantaro, which is equal to about 196*lbs.* avoirdupois; so that a rotolo is somewhat less than 2*lbs.* avoirdupois. Corn is sold by the tumolo, of which 5½ths make an imperial quarter; oil by the salm, of which 5½ make a tun of 236 gallons; wine by the barrel, of which 12 make a pipe of 132 gallons: cloth by the cane (*canna*), which is equal to 2¼rd yards. Land is measured by the moggio, which is equal to ⅔ths of an acre.

Sicily.—The island of Sicily, washed on the northern side by the Tuscan Sea, on the eastern by the Ionian Sea, and on the southern and western by the African Sea, is situated between the 36th and 38th parallels of north latitude, and the 12th and 16th degrees of east longitude. Its shape is that of an irregular triangle, each angle terminating in a promontory. The eastern promontory is called Cape Faro, the southern Cape Passaro, and the western Cape Boco. Its greatest length is about 180 miles; its greatest breadth 130: its circumference about 600, and its area about 12,000 square miles.

The principal rivers are the Fiume Grande on the northern side, the Salso on the southern, and the Giarretta on the eastern; but none of them are navigable.

The chief lake is the Biviere de Lemtini, the size of which varies with the season. In winter the circumference is about 19 miles, and in summer not more than 9 or 10 miles.

The loftiest mountains are the Apennines, or the Madonian Chain, which begins at Cape Faro, runs westward to the centre of the island, (where it throws off a spur, called the Heræan range, which stretches southwards to Cape Passaro), and then steadily pursues its course towards Cape San Vito, where it meets the Tuscan Sea. The volcano of Mingibello, better known as Etna, lies to the east of the Heræan chain. *The largest plains are those of Catania, Terranova, and Sciacca.* The

first, anciently called the Leontine Field, is about 20 miles long by 12 broad.

The interior of the island presents a vast assemblage of lofty mountains, divided from each other by fruitful vallies. The appearance of the northern and eastern coasts is bold and romantic: the aspect of the southern and western coasts is far less striking. The greater part of the soil, derived from the Jurassic limestone of the Madonian mountains, is calcareous: a small portion lying at the foot of the Neptunian chain, on the eastern side, is granitic. Where the calcareous soil is deep, a black loam yields abundant crops; where it is shallow, a red sandstone renders a smaller produce. In both cases, the harvest depends much upon the rain.

The climate in general is healthy. The mean height of the barometer is $29^{\circ} 80'$. The mean temperature of the year is 63° Fahrenheit: that of January and February, the coldest months, is 52° ; that of July and August, the hottest months, is 76° . An agreeable freshness which prevails in May, becomes a genial warmth in June: in July and August the weather is sultry and oppressive: in September and October a pleasant coolness usually reigns. Cold and damp, just perceptible in November, are sufficiently felt from December until April to render a good fire agreeable in the winter's evening. A drought commonly reigns from May until September. Slight showers in October lead to heavy falls of rain in November and December, which recur from time to time until April, when fine weather usually sets in. The mean quantity of rain which falls annually at Palermo is 22 inches. Sufficient snow is found upon the higher mountains from October until May to supply both Sicily and Malta with this necessary of life in a southern climate during the rest of the year.

The most remarkable wind is the scirocco, which checks perspiration, dries up the skin, and produces weariness and languor. Ushered in by a dead calm, the visitation lasts about three days, and is followed by a deluge of rain. During its continuance the atmosphere is oppressive, and the current of air resembles the blast of a furnace. Thunder-storms are frequent between August and January, and slight shocks of earthquake are common on the eastern coast during the first three months of the year.

The chief cities are Palermo, the capital, on the northern coast; Messina, Catania, and Syracuse on the eastern side; Girgenti on the southern, and Marsala and Trápani on the western. In the interior are the populous cities of Caltanissetta, Castrogiovanni, and Caltagirone.

Government accounts are kept in ducats and grains, as at Naples; but *merchants'* accounts are kept in ounces, taris, and grains. 20 grains make a tari, worth about 4*d.* sterling; 30 taris make an ounce, worth about 10*s.*

Heavy goods are sold by the cantaro and the rotolo. A rotolo is equal to about $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. avoirdupois, and a cantaro, or 100 rotoli, is equal to 175 lbs. avoirdupois. Corn is sold by the salm, of which $1\frac{1}{8}$ th is equal to an imperial quarter; oil by the cafiso, equal to $2\frac{2}{3}$ rd imperial gallons; wine by the botte, equal to 90 imperial gallons; cloth by the cane, equal to $2\frac{1}{2}$ rd yards. Land is measured by the salm, equal to about $4\frac{1}{2}$ acres.

CHAPTER II.

THE TWO SICILIES AT THE SPANISH CONQUEST, 1734-35.

The Two Sicilies had belonged to Austria for about 14 years, when a war breaking out between Austria and Spain, the Infant Charles Bourbon, son of Philip V. of Spain, invaded Naples by land in 1734, overthrew the Austrians, took possession of the capital, and carrying his arms beyond sea, made himself master of Sicily in the following year. From that memorable epoch to the present time, both the Sicilies have been under the Spanish Bourbons, with a single and short intermission at the beginning of the present century. From 1806 to 1815 the *Hither* Sicily was governed by French usurpers, while Sicily *Proper* was subject, as before, to the son of the Spanish conqueror.

Naples.—In 1734, the realm of Naples contained about 4,000,000 inhabitants. This small population comprised two classes of society—the feudal class, which inhabited baronial towns, and the demesnal class, which occupied royal burghs. The former, it is believed, constituted three-fourths of the people. The riches and prosperity of the two classes formed a striking contrast to their relative numbers. The demesnal population, governed by the viceroy, directly or indirectly, was in a thriving state; the feudal, subject to the barons and the clergy, was wretchedly situated. In many baronial towns, where mills and ovens were wanting, the vassals were under the necessity of pounding their corn in mortars, and baking their bread in embers; and, throughout the feudal territory, the peasants lived in straw and mud hovels, open to the weather, and furnished only with a flock bed on trestles, upon which all the household slept in common with the dogs. All branches of industry were in a backward state. Husbandry was slovenly; manufactures were rude; and commerce was insignificant. Inland traffic, confined to the intermediate towns between the capital and the Roman frontier, was equally unimportant with maritime trade, which was carried on principally under foreign flags.

The government of the state was monarchical. The legislative powers were vested in a sovereign, whose will was made known through a supreme giunta, called the Council of State, the residence of which was at Vienna. The executive functions were committed to a subordinate giunta, called the Collateral Council, which held its sittings at Naples. The civil and criminal laws were not the same for all classes of society. The vassals of the barons and the clergy were subject to the feudal and ecclesiastical institutes; while the demesnal population was governed, according to municipal usage, by nine codes, called the Roman Law, the Byzantine, the Lombard, the Norman, the Suabian, the Angevine, the Aragonese, the Austro-Spanish, and the Imperial, from the nations and dynasties by which Naples had been successively conquered. The criminal procedure was barbarous and inhuman. The witness, if voluntary, was not confronted with the accused; if reluctant, he was liable, equally with the accused, to be put to the torture, and compelled to give evidence. In the demesne, the laws were administered by the king's judges, who were usually court favourites; in the feudal territory, justice was distributed by the baronial judges, who were, for the most part, pettifogging lawyers. Everywhere partiality and corruption went openly *hand in hand*. Capital punishments for murder and robbery were, in

the feudal territory, either carried into execution, or commuted for money by the feudatories, who kept men-at-arms at their beck and call for either purpose. In the demesne, the viceroy enjoyed the right of pardoning for murder.

The affairs of the capital were directed by a corporate body, called "the Deputation of Nobles," which, as the feeble representation of the extinct parliament, exercised a slight influence over the king's viceroy. The demesnal towns, or royal burghs, were intrusted to presidents invested with military as well as civil authority. The feudal towns were governed by the barons and prelates, to whom they severally belonged. The government of the interior was unsettled and irregular. The revenue of the state, amounting to 2,309,500 ducats, (384,906*l.*), arose from many sources; as the rent of crown lands, the profits of royal monopolies, the produce of iron-works, the state lottery, the customs and consumption duties, &c. The army, about 20,000 strong, was in a loose state of discipline; the naval force consisted of a few galleys, manned by convicts and captives, chained to the oar. The education of youth was in the hands of the Jesuits; the celebration of public worship was conducted by an overgrown body of regular and secular clergy; two-thirds of the feudal territory belonged to the priests and friars, who formed about a thirty-sixth part of the whole population.

Sicily.—At the landing of the Infant Charles, Sicily contained about 1,000,000 inhabitants. This slender population was, like the Neapolitan, divided into the feudal and demesnal classes, of which the former constituted five-eighths of the Sicilian people.* Public industry, in all its branches, was in a sickly state; foreign trade was monopolised by the French, the Genoese, and the Tuscans, of whom the latter two sailed as often under the English flag as under their own, as a safeguard against the Barbary cruizers, by whom the Italian flags were little respected.

The Sicilian monarchy was of a mixed character: the legislative functions were vested in a sovereign, but the regal power was controlled in some degree by parliamentary authority. The executive functions were exercised by a viceroy or lord-lieutenant, who presided, as at Naples, over a Collateral Council, established in the capital of the realm.

The laws of Sicily formed an immense collection of Roman, Norman, and Suabian institutes, royal decrees, pragmatic sanctions, and parliamentary statutes, which, by their darkness and inconsistency, placed life and property in imminent danger. In the barony, civil and criminal law were administered by the baronial judges, from whose sentence no appeal was allowed to the dissatisfied suitor. In the demesne, the administration of justice was intrusted to the king's judges, whose decision was final in criminal cases, but reversible in civil, upon appeal to the provincial courts. Felons were tried by a criminal tribunal, over which a chief justice presided. Petty larcenies were punished by the local authorities in a summary manner. In every large town an officer, called the Captain of Justice, pursued the offender; another, called the Fiscal, brought him to trial; and a third, called the Criminal Judge, declared him guilty or not guilty. The promptness and simplicity of the criminal

* It appears by the census of 1653 that out of 285 cities and towns, having a total population of 873,742, only 43 belonged to the demesne, and 242 to the barony or feudal territory. The inhabitants of the demesne amounted to 297,644, those of the barony to 576,098.—(*Giornale di Statistica*, vol. iv., p. 235.)

procedure were overbalanced by its sternness, corruption, and partiality. The captain of justice, who was answerable for all robberies committed between sunrise and sunset, made amends for occasional losses by levying regular contributions, at stated seasons, on his district. The judge, who, as well as the fiscal, was appointed by the barons and the clergy, was the ready tool of his masters, for good or for evil. At their command or intercession, he condemned or spared the delinquent. In the capital civil law was administered, in the last instance, by a great court, and criminal law by a captain of justice and two assessors, whose sentence, however, was reversible by a criminal tribunal. The criminal procedure rested on the extorted confession of the supposed delinquent. To obtain this questionable proof, every species of cruelty was practised. In misdemeanours, the wrists of the accused were bound together so tightly as to stop the circulation of the blood: in felonies and high treasons, red-hot irons were applied to the soles of the feet, and splinters of reed were thrust under the nails. If the torture proved ineffectual, the accused was thrown into a deep underground dungeon, of the smallest size and most horrible kind. Immured in a damp and dark cell, of eight or ten feet long by three or four broad, the prisoner lay upon straw, bound hand and foot, until he made the desired confession. Such, at least, was the procedure in the capital. In the provinces torture was not in use; but hardened malefactors and youthful offenders were huddled together in gaols, which, from their filth and dampness, were hardly fit shelter for the beasts of the field.

The revenues of demesnal towns were administered by royal jurats, who, accountable only to a corrupt board, called the "Tribunal of Royal Patrimony," usually made their fortunes during a short term of office. The revenue of the state was derived partly from customs inwards and outwards, levied by royal authority, and partly from donatives voted by a parliament, the constitution of which body requires a brief explanation. The ancient parliament of Sicily was composed of three arms—the military, the ecclesiastical, and the demesnal. The military consisted of 124 feudatories, entitled princes, dukes, marquesses, counts, and barons respectively. The ecclesiastical consisted of 61 prelates, under various denominations. The demesnal consisted of 46 representatives of demesnal towns. In the military arm, every feudatory had as many votes as he had fiefs: the Prince of Butera, the president, had no less than 18. In the ecclesiastical and demesnal arms, absent members could vote by proxy. As the feudatories were exempt from new taxes, the prelates were looking up for promotion, and the representatives were, for the most part, place-holders or place-hunters, the demands of the viceroys seldom met with stubborn resistance. The three arms debated apart, and communicated their separate votes by their respective ambassadors. Parliament met only once in three years, and usually sat for only six or eight hours, or at most a single night. The prorogation was signalized by a grand display of favours: honours and decorations, preferments and offices, were showered upon the members most distinguished for servility to the court. Yet, rare as were its meetings, and short its sessions, the parliament was not wholly useless. During the long recess, a giunta of nine members, taken equally from the three arms, and called the "Deputation of the Realm," controlled the viceregal government, watched over the *national liberties*, and held the public purse. As representatives of the

parliament, the deputies fixed the contingent payable by each arm to the general revenue, received the several quotas, and issued monies from the bank, deposited, in their name, for the wants of the public service.

Instruction was in Sicily, as in Naples, committed to the Jesuits. Public worship was conducted by a clergy chiefly remarkable for its wealth and numbers. The Sicilian church differed from the Neapolitan in being subject to the king, as apostolic legate, instead of being ruled by a papal nuncio, as in other Catholic countries. The Holy Office, or Inquisition, the introduction of which into Naples had been firmly and successfully resisted, had taken root in Sicily, and put forth its branches on all sides, to the perversion of the public feeling, and the distortion of the national judgment.

CHAPTER III.

REIGN OF CHARLES III. OVER THE TWO SICILIES FROM 1734-35 TO 1759.

Naples.—Such was the state of the Two Sicilies when the Infant Charles ascended the throne of both countries, under the title of Charles III. Well aware that the chief cause of Neapolitan misery was the overgrown power of the barons and the clergy, he resolved to lay the axe to the root of the tree, and to attack the first principles of feudal authority. Laying down the maxim, that no one should come between the sovereign and the subject, he narrowed the feudal and ecclesiastical jurisdictions, took away the right of compounding punishments, and prohibited the barons from keeping men-at-arms to enforce judicial sentences. This object being attained, Charles followed up his plan of undermining feudal power, by inviting the great barons to court, and by treating them with studied kindness, in order to attach them to his person and family. The lesser nobles, dazzled by the royal condescension, quitted their castles and domains, and flocked to the capital, where luxury and extravagance soon plunged them deep into debt. Forced to mortgage or sell their estates for the purpose of satisfying creditors, they sank into obscurity, and made way for the lawyers and money-lenders, who, steadily rising as the nobles declined in importance, came at length to constitute a third order of Neapolitan society.

General industry was promoted, by the encouragement and facilities given to commerce and manufactures. The king having resolved that his troops should be dressed in Neapolitan cloth, many French and German weavers settled at Arpino, and set up woollen manufactures, after the manner of their several countries. Inland trade was facilitated by the construction of carriage-roads around the metropolis, and foreign trade was protected by commercial treaties, fostered by the security of property and freedom of religion guaranteed to aliens, and relieved from oppression by the revival of the tariff. The exportation of corn, hitherto restricted, now became free, to the mutual benefit of the grower and consumer.

The constitution of the government continued the same; the distribution of power underwent alteration. The legislative functions were still vested in the king, who presided over a council of state. The vice-royalty was abolished as a useless appendage. The executive functions were committed to a board, called the *Camera di Santa Chiara*, by which the Collateral Council was superseded. For the use of the reformed

magistracy, a new code was drawn up by a body of eminent jurists. The civil and criminal laws, however, were not materially altered: the civil procedure was simplified, but the criminal process was neglected. The government of provinces was entrusted to military officers, well fitted, by their character and habits, to prevent the barons from oppressing the peasantry. The finances were adjusted. For about 14 years after Charles's accession, donatives were raised, as before, by direct taxation. In 1748 they ceased to form a branch of the revenue. Various imposts had been suppressed in 1741, and an income-tax of five per cent. upon real property had been established in Naples. Many heavy duties, long mortgaged to the public creditor, were now redeemed by the state, and appropriated to the revenue.

To give efficiency to the defence of the country, the strength of the army was raised from 20,000 to 24,000 men, and from the latter amount to 30,000 during the reign of Charles. The *matériel* shared his attention in common with the *personnel*: cannon foundries and armouries of all kinds were set up on a large scale, and the port of the capital was strongly and skilfully fortified. The formation of a navy occupied the royal care. A nautical college was founded, and a dock-yard traced out. Shipwrights and pilots were sought out and enlisted, and seamen were enrolled in considerable numbers. The result was soon apparent. A fleet, consisting of two ships of the line, two frigates, and ten small craft, built and equipped at Naples, caused the Neapolitan flag, formerly insulted with impunity, to be respected by the Barbary corsairs.

The interests of literature and science were promoted by the institution of societies and academies; and the wants of poverty were relieved by the establishment of a poor-house, endowed with ample funds.

Sicily.—The benefits derived by Sicily from the government of Charles were fewer and less substantial than those reaped by Naples. Merchant shipping, indeed, was protected from danger by the erection of moles or breakwaters at Palermo and Girgenti, and the home trade derived convenience and advantage from the institution of a tribunal of commerce. Public health, too, was secured against contagion and infection by the establishment of quarantines; and sickness and want were assuaged and alleviated by means of a public hospital and a poor-house. The general structure of the local administration was the same as before; but the machinery of the supreme government was somewhat altered by the establishment at Naples of a *Giunta di Sicilia*, for the speedier despatch of Sicilian affairs.

CHAPTER IV.

REIGN OF FERDINAND I. OVER THE TWO SICILIES. PART I. FROM 1759 TO 1806.

Charles III. having succeeded in 1759 to the Spanish monarchy, upon the death of his father, Ferdinand VI. of Spain, relinquished the throne of Naples and Sicily to his third son, Ferdinand, agreeably to the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which the future union of the Spanish and Italian crowns had been expressly forbidden. Ferdinand ascended the throne under the strange denomination of Ferdinand the Fourth of Naples and Third of Sicily. Destined to be called hereafter "*Ferdinand the First King of the Two Sicilies*," he will be designated by the latter title in

the following pages. A boy of only eight years of age at his accession to the crown, Ferdinand left the reins of government to a Council of Regency, at the head of which was Bernardo Tanuca, a statesman of great ability and experience, by whom the important trust was faithfully discharged, to the honour and advantage of the nation.

Naples.—The vigorous attack on feudal power, commenced under Charles, was carried on by the regency. The baronial judges were deprived of their authority, which was given to the king's magistrates, and the barons and prelates were placed upon a level with the body of the people. Privileged orders ceased to exist, and society became divided into three classes, all equal to each other in the eye of the law. These were the nobles, the gentry, and the populace, of which the second or middle class had the greatest weight with the government.

The minority of Ferdinand having terminated in 1767, the Regency resigned the helm to the Sovereign, by whom Tanuca, the president, was placed at the head of the council. The attention of this statesman was first turned to the improvement of agriculture. New breeds of cattle were imported; new methods of husbandry were practised, and further encouragement was given to agricultural industry. Lands first ploughed and tilled, and domains first planted with olive trees, were exempted from the land-tax for twenty and forty years to come, according to circumstances. Other branches of industry shared the patronage of the government. The silk-manufactory of San Leucio, founded in 1788, long flourished under royal protection. In one instance, however, ministerial intervention had a mischievous effect. A coral fishery, successfully carried on by the mariners of Torre del Greco, upon the African coast, was ruined by the minister of the interior, who, not content with allowing the fishermen to manage their own affairs, formed them into a company, the proceedings of which were regulated by the laws of a *coral code*. The bold and industrious seamen, who, when left to themselves, had toiled and prospered, were no sooner fettered by rules and regulations, than they slackened their exertions, dropped off one by one, and at length gave up the undertaking. The formation of carriage-roads, begun by Charles, was carried on by Ferdinand. Broad and solid causeways were constructed, the length of which exceeded 1,200 miles in all directions round the capital of the kingdom.

Population advanced faster than improvement. The number of souls in the Neapolitan dominions, which in 1734 was about 4,000,000, amounted in 1786 to 4,800,000. The condition of the people was far from satisfactory. The demesnal subjects were tolerably circumstanced; but the feudal population, which formed the larger portion of the Neapolitan people, was steeped in poverty to the lips. A baronial town was readily distinguished from a royal burgh by the meanness of its houses, the wretchedness of its people, and the scarcity or want of all the comforts and necessities of civilised life. Neither market-place nor colonnade, private garden nor public walk, appeared within its walls. The only good buildings were castles and gaols, churches and monasteries, mansions and villas, the dwellings of the barons, the clergy, and the local authorities.

Foreign trade was almost stagnant. In 1771, the value of all the imports into Naples did not exceed 1,200,000*l.*, nor that of all the

exports 1,000,000*l*.* This trade was chiefly carried on in foreign vessels, the national shipping being at that time nothing but small craft. Large vessels were first launched in 1776, from which date until 1784 ship-building made such progress, that in the latter year 3,253 vessels, under the national flag, measuring altogether 98,580 tons, and navigated by 11,240 seamen, entered the port of Naples with general cargoes.

The disordered finances were re-organised between the accession of Ferdinand and the commencement of the French Revolution. When the latter broke out, the revenue of the Two Sicilies amounted to about 2,750,000*l*., of which sum about 170,000*l*. were contributed by Sicily Proper. In 1790, the allowances to the royal family amounted to about 200,000*l*. per annum, the expenses of government to about 1,000,000*l*., the payment to public creditors to about 500,000*l*., and the salaries, &c., to feudal authorities, the clergy, &c., to about 1,250,000*l*., making in all about 2,750,000*l*. Thus the public expenditure was about equal to, or somewhat exceeded the revenue.

In 1780, an attempt was made by Sir John Acton, the war minister, to place the public defence on a new and efficient footing, the result of which was not answerable to the masterly design. The army was nominally 30,000 strong, but in reality only 20,000, the remaining 10,000 not being in existence. Recruited by means of a conscription, and by drafts from the galley-slaves, the military force was as formidable to the public peace as it was despicable to the foreign enemy. Desirous to improve its character, Sir John Acton required both the demesne and the feudal territory to furnish their respective quotas of cavalry and infantry. The requisition was ineffectual; the complement was still short. To fill up the ranks of the infantry, recourse was had to the galleys, from which numerous convicts were transferred to the barracks. The motley force thus raised was placed under French and Swiss officers, whose discipline proved too severe for Neapolitan endurance. Complaint became loud and general, and the vacillating government dismissed the foreign officers. The bulk of the army relapsed into insubordination: the artillery alone, the commander of which corps retained his commission, rose by degrees to well-earned distinction.

In 1790 the *nominal* strength of the peace establishment was 50,000 of all arms, and the *effective* about half that number, including 6,800 foreign troops. The war establishment in 1793 carried the effective up to 36,000 regular troops, besides 15,000 militiamen, who were liable to serve in the line in case of invasion. Under the same able minister the navy was raised to a moderate degree of efficiency in public estimation. Reduced to a few galleys in 1780, it consisted in 1788 of 4 line-of-battle ships, 9 frigates, 6 corvettes, 6 xebecs, 4 brigs, and 8 galliots, carrying in all 962 guns, and manned by 2,850 seamen and marines. This strength went on increasing. In 1790 a 74-gun ship and 140

	Imports.	Exports.
	£.	£.
* 1. Materials of Food	225,000	660,000
2. Materials of Clothing, Building, & Furnishing	570,000	340,000
3. Materials of Manufactures, &c.	445,000	80,000
Total	1,240,000	1,080,000

small craft were built and fitted out, the crews of which squadron raised the complement of seamen and marines to 8,600 men.

The education of youth, as already mentioned, was intrusted to the Jesuits. Upon the expulsion of that order in 1768, a portion of their immense estates was applied to the wants of instruction, while another was devoted to the purposes of charity. Every demesnal town to which a share was given, hired a schoolmaster to teach reading and writing; and every province which partook of the bounty established a school for classical and mathematical learning. The University of Naples, which also shared the spoils, enlarged the bounds of its studies. To the ancient chairs of municipal and international law, divinity and natural philosophy, new professorships were added of Latin and Italian literature. The chair of political economy, first occupied by the celebrated Genovese, and the earliest of the kind in Europe, was endowed by a private citizen with 50*l.* per annum for ever. But, although some part of the Jesuits' estate was usefully appropriated, by far the greater part was profligately wasted. The net revenue, 185,334 ducats, (30,889*l.*), might have supplied the country with a sufficiency of able teachers in every walk of learning. Unhappily, the estate was mismanaged, and instruction was but scantily promoted. The bulk of the property was distributed among the people under government, by whom it was bought, much under its value, with the perquisites of office.

Defects and abuses in the church establishment underwent a partial reform. The number of the clergy amounted, in 1788, to 72,632, of whom 47,233 were priests and deacons, and 25,399 were monks and friars. At the same epoch, the annual income of the clergy was estimated at 8,419,390 ducats, (1,403,231*l.*), of which sum about five-eighths belonged to the regular clergy, and the rest to the secular body. The wealth of the monastic orders had already been reduced, and was doomed to still further reduction. Ferdinand had scarcely attained his majority, before he suppressed seven convents in Naples, and twenty-eight in Sicily, upon the doubtful ground of their harbouring banditti, and confiscated their property, "as perverted to wicked purposes." To complete the reformation, he prohibited ecclesiastical bodies from adding to their present wealth, and fixed the patrimonies of priests, and the portions of nuns, at moderate amounts, without which, ordination or profession was strictly forbidden. The number of parish priests, formerly unrestricted, was now limited to five ministers for every thousand inhabitants.

Sicily.—Such was the state of Naples, when Ferdinand, driven out by the French in 1799, took refuge in Sicily, where he met with a hearty welcome from a warm and generous people, deeply sympathising in his misfortunes. Sicily was at this time in a wretched condition. The population consisted of about 1,600,000 inhabitants, of whom the greater portion were still subject to the barons and clergy. Feudality, shaken to its centre, was not yet overthrown. From time immemorial the great nobles had interfered in the municipal elections, and tyrannized over the peasantry. It was the duty of the vassal to carry the baron's corn to market before he disposed of his own; to sell his garden-stuff to the baron at a fixed value; to plough the baron's land for nothing; to crush his olives at the baron's press; to grind his corn at the baron's mill: and to buy his bread, meat, oil, and wine, at the ovens, shambles, shops, and taverns belonging to the fief. The barons, on the other hand, were charged with the expenses of courts and prisons, and

were subject to payments for feudal services, and dues for succession to feudal estates. Thus matters stood in 1783, when the viceroy Caraccioli, an enlightened Neapolitan, hostile to feudality, encouraged the townspeople to resist their baronial tyrants, and exhorted the peasantry not to work for the barons without receiving wages. The king's judges, well supported by the viceroy, gave an attentive hearing to the complaints of the peasantry, and in many cases, where no charters were extant, released the vassals for ever from the performance of feudal services. The barons were next forbidden to interfere in municipal elections, and were finally deprived of the judicial administration, which devolved upon the king's authorities, by whom it had been originally exercised.

The redress of grievances and the reformation of abuses, caused the progress of industry to be steady, although slow. Agriculture and commerce were still in a backward state. The only thriving branch of industry was the raising of corn and grain. The cultivation of the olive and the grape, the almond and the orange, yielded the husbandman as little profit as was reaped by the grazier from the breeding of sheep and cattle. Nor were the merchant and the manufacturer in a better situation than the farmer and the planter. Foreign trade was obstructed by Turkish piracy; the annual imports from all countries did not amount in value to 250,000*l.*; the exchange of commodities between Naples and Sicily was of limited extent; the coasting trade was shackled by municipal laws, and the inland trade embarrassed by the collection of transit duties. Nor were these the only obstacles to free communication. There were but two carriage-roads in the island—one from Palermo to Vallerunga, about sixty miles long, and another, about five miles long, from Palermo to Morreali. The rest of the island was traversed by mule-tracks. Where stone causeways and stepping-stones were wanting, as was frequently the case, the plains and rivers were almost impassable after heavy falls of rain.

The government had undergone no material change since the accession of Charles III. The teaching of youth had, since the expulsion of the Jesuits, been intrusted to a board of prelates, by which schools had been established on paper, before provision had been made for their support. The Jesuits' forfeiture, which, as at Naples, might have answered all purposes, was squandered away by commissioners, aptly called the "*Giunta degli Abusi*," by whom it was perverted to useless and frivolous ends. The sum of 10,000*l.* was misapplied to the restoration of a corn bank, and totally lost; small sums were devoted to the purposes of instruction; an academy was founded in Palermo; the university of Catania was enlarged, and schools of industry were opened in Palermo, Messina, and Catania; but the greater part of the estate was wasted in law-suits, and the little that remained in 1804 was restored to the Jesuits, upon the reinstatement of the banished society.

The connexion between the church and the state, long severed by the intervention of the Holy Office, had been restored upon the overthrow of that hateful institution in 1782. The tribunal of the inquisition was first established in Sicily under the emperor Frederick, about A.D. 1220. For two centuries and a half, during which period it is designated as the "*Ancient Inquisition*," its annals are unimportant, compared with its history in later times. Placed in 1483 under the Spanish institution, of which Torquemada was then the bloody director, the Sicilian tribunal changed its moderate character for one of extreme severity. In 1487,

Antonio Penna, a Dominican Friar, came over from Spain, armed with full power to bring heretics to the stake. Other familiars trod in his footsteps, and kindled the flames of persecution. The tribunal of Sicily, which had hitherto been itinerant, now became stationary. Its first place of residence was the royal palace at Palermo; its next the fortress of Castellamare, which was doomed to destruction. For eighty years after its establishment, the acts of the "modern inquisition" are imperfectly known, the records having perished when the fortress, in which were 500 prisoners, blew up in 1590. Three *Autos da Fé* are recorded as having taken place at Palermo. At the first, in 1640, a Calvinist, a relapsed Mussulman, and a visionary, were burnt at the stake. At the second, in 1658, an Augustine friar, who had slain an insulting familiar in a fit of passion, underwent the horrid fate; and at the third and last celebration, in 1724, an Augustine friar and a Benedictine nun were the sufferers. On the same occasion, twenty-six persons, who escaped being "*relaxed to the secular arm*," or brought to the stake, were "*reconciled to the Holy Office*," by being sentenced to be whipped through the town with a gag in their mouths, to be kept to hard labour, or to stand in the pillory, according to the relative heinousness of their imputed crimes. Such were the tender mercies of the Sicilian Inquisition!

On the 27th March, 1782, the Holy Office was suppressed by the viceroy Caraccioli, who entered the hall in state, and ordered the prisoners to be set at liberty. The ill-gotten wealth of the office was forfeited to the crown. The iron cages, containing human skulls, were taken down and split asunder, in order that every trace of this odious institution might be blotted out of memory. The archives were ordered to be burnt, and their ashes to be scattered to the wind. So strictly was this order enforced, that out of an immense mass of papers and parchments, a single volume of records escaped the flames. This collection of manuscripts, still preserved in a private library at Palermo, contains the original acts of the inquisition during the persecution of the Molinists, or Quietists, between 1681 and 1700.

The king's visit to Sicily produced little or no change in the condition of the people, the state of industry and instruction, or the constitution of the local government. Returned to Naples after an absence of three years, Ferdinand found, to his great joy, that the measures introduced by the French had been fleeting and short-lived. The ancient institutions had already been re-established. Hardly was Ferdinand restored, than he hastened to suppress the "Deputation of Nobles," and to organize a senate, composed of his own creatures, which should regulate and administer the finances of the capital, without controlling the action of the general government. His sway was destined to be short. In 1806, the French having regained their ascendancy, Ferdinand relinquished the throne of Naples, and again sought refuge in his Sicilian dominions.

CHAPTER V.

FRENCH DOMINION OVER NAPLES FROM 1806 TO 1815.

I. Reign of Joseph Buonaparte from 1806 to 1808.

II. Reign of Joachim Murat from 1808 to 1815.

Upon the abdication of Ferdinand, the vacant throne of Naples was usurped by Joseph Buonaparte, by whom it was occupied for about two years.

Naples.—At this epoch, the Neapolitan territory belonged to a small number of landlords, by whom it was let out upon long leases to middlemen or contractors. The larger portion was owned by the barons and the clergy, the smaller by the lawyers and men of capital, who, as already stated, had supplanted the lesser nobility. The great mass of the population was still struggling with poverty and want. The state of agriculture was deplorable. Large and lovely plains, once renowned for fertility, but now become barren, were covered with stones and rubbish, brought down by the torrents from the Apennines: the progress of husbandry was checked by unwise and selfish laws, which prevented the farmer from selling his corn at market, or sending it abroad, until the local and public wants were supplied and satisfied. Rudeness of machinery, scarcity of capital, and limitation of credit, caused manufactures to be stationary. Foreign trade was suspended on account of the war, and inland trade was obstructed by the bad state and want of roads.

The public revenue, amounting to 16,000,000 ducats, (2,666,666*l.*), arose from a land-tax, rent of crown lands, compositions for feudal services, and other minor sources. Many imposts were mortgaged to the national creditor. The laws were scattered over thirteen codes, of which the latest, or that of Charles III., clashed with the preceding twelve. The civil procedure was tedious and unsettled: the criminal process was cruel and oppressive. The course of justice often met with obstructions from ministerial intervention. The judges, wholly dependent on the crown, were removable at pleasure.

The estates of bodies corporate were administered by municipal magistrates, who rendered their accounts once a year to the assembled burghers, whose approval was conclusive.

Elementary knowledge was inculcated in normal, conventual, and diocesan schools, scattered over the country: classical learning was cultivated in the capital: mathematical was wholly neglected. Degrees in divinity, law, and medicine, were publicly sold by collegiate authorities.

Such was the sad state of Naples when Joseph Buonaparte first ascended the throne. To encourage agriculture, by breaking up the royal demesne and by abolishing feudal rights, was the earliest endeavour of the new sovereign. A large portion of the *Tavoliere di Puglia* was let out upon long leases to the neighbouring farmers, to be ploughed, sown with corn, and planted with olive trees; the remainder was left entire, to serve as a vast sheep-walk for the migrating flocks of Apulia and Abruzzo. The prompt abolition of feudal rights illegally exercised, was the subject of a decree, (2nd August, 1806,) by which feudal estates were made liable to taxes, in common with demesnal property.

The abolition of feudal rights led to the suppression of entails, and the latter to the separation and extinction of common and promiscuous rights. *Sole* property became freely, and *mixed* became conditionally, alienable at the will of the actual possessor.

The new monarch next proceeded to suppress the monastic orders. Those of St. Benedict and St. Bernard, twelve metropolitan nunneries, and all the beneficed orders, shared the common fate. The number of suppressed societies amounted to 210, and the sum of their riches to 150,000,000 ducats, (25,000,000*l.*) Pensions of from 10*l.* to 20*l.* a-year were settled on the monks and nuns thus despotically ejected from their houses and homes.

The enormous quantity of crown and church property thus thrown into

the market created a new class of landlords in the capitalists of Naples, by whom it was principally purchased.

Changes were soon made in the structure of government. Legislation, indeed, continued to be a royal prerogative, as heretofore: but the executive department was materially altered: improvements were made in the mode of administering justice, by the introduction of the Code Napoleon, and by the partial reformation of the judicial order.

The civil code established the supremacy of the law, and the equality of all classes of subjects. The commercial code, lenient to misfortune, treated fraud with severity. Special jurisdictions were abolished, and succeeded by complete uniformity in the administration of justice. The integrity of the judges was secured, by making them independent of ministerial favour.

The criminal code, and the code of civil procedure, were disfigured by blemishes and defects of a striking character; but, upon the whole, the good outweighed the evil, and the judicial reforms conciliated public favour.

The government of the interior was entirely remodelled, and the country divided into 14 provinces, 50 districts, 494 circondari, and 1,792 communes—a territorial division which still subsists with a slight alteration. An intendente, charged with the control and direction of subordinate officers, was set over every province, as the king's representative. Every district, in like manner, was committed to a sub-intendente, and every commune to a syndic and two elects, the representatives of their respective superiors. A small share of power was given to councils of provinces, districts, and communes, the members of which were chosen from among the wealthiest inhabitants by royal authority.

The finances of the state were settled on a new plan. The poll-tax and others were superseded by a general impost, or income-tax, assessed at 20 per cent., the produce of which was about 7,000,000 ducats, (1,166,666*l.*) The funding system was now first introduced. The government, desirous to redeem the imposts, mortgaged for loans, set confiscated lands up to auction to the value of 10,000,000 ducats, (1,666,666*l.*), declaring that public securities would be taken in payment to the amount of three-fourths of the price, the rest being payable in cash. Many valuable taxes were thus advantageously and honourably redeemed. The claims of such mortgagees as refused the offer were placed upon a register, called "*the Great Book of the Public Debt*," as transferable inscriptions, bearing annual interest at 5 per cent. The capital of this debt amounted, on the 30th April, 1808, to 100,684,559 ducats, (16,780,760*l.*)

The defence of the country shared the attention of the sovereign. The strength of the army in 1808 was 21,600, including two foreign corps. The mode of recruitment adopted was the bad one of former days: recourse was had to the prisons to form new regiments of infantry, destined for foreign and domestic service; and the safety of the interior was committed to a corps of volunteers or provincial militia.

The public defence by sea, likewise, occupied the royal care. All the Neapolitan ships of war having been carried off to Sicily by Ferdinand, there remained behind but a few gun-boats to be seized by the French invaders. Within two years, however, a small squadron, consisting of a frigate, a corvette, a brig, and 80 small craft, appeared as the nucleus of a Neapolitan navy.

Public instruction received attention without being greatly promoted. Schools in all the communes, and colleges in all the provinces, for elementary and classical learning, were rather designed than established, by decrees to that effect.

On the 15th of July, 1808, Joseph Bonaparte, who was created king of Spain by Napoleon, resigned the crown of Naples to his brother-in-law, Joachim Murat.

The first step taken by Joachim was to pursue the plan of policy laid down by his predecessor, for the destruction of feudal power. The Feudal Commission of 1806, had been directed to separate feudal from allodial or free lands, to determine the several rights of the barons and the towns over lands held in common, and to divide such estates between the joint owners, and lastly, to distribute the portion assignable to the towns among the inhabitants, by public sale at auction. The task had been undertaken, but was far from completion. The co-proprietors had been brought into court. The king, the barons, and the clergy stood on one side, and on the other stood the *communities*, or feudal and demesnal towns corporate. Many reputed fiefs had been declared free properties; many common estates had been divided, and many assigned lands had been put up to auction. The Commissioners were charged with having courted popularity by an undue leaning to the weaker side. The communities, it was said, were favoured in the appraisement of rights and the division of lands, and the poorer townspeople were accommodated, at the expense of the richer burghers, in the allotment of their several portions. To remove all just complaint, and to complete the important work, a new Board was created, composed of independent magistrates, who should settle all pending suits in a summary manner. The new Commissioners entered upon their duties in 1810. Such joint estates as were still undivided, and such town lands as were still undistributed, were assigned and allotted to the respective claimants without further delay; and the abolition of entails, and the establishment of absolute rights were now confirmed and consolidated. The effect of these measures was to raise up a class of landlords, by whom husbandry was carried on upon new and better principles in all its different branches.

Manufactures made steady advances as soon as masters and workmen were emancipated from the thralldom of guilds. The making of hats was improved; the weaving of cloths was extended; but every attempt, however vigorous, to establish the manufacture of cottons, silks, and leathers, ended in disappointment. Maritime commerce, checked by the British cruisers, gave way to inland trade, which was carried on with great success. Raw produce was sent overland to Upper Italy, France, and Germany, in large quantities of considerable value. The exportation of cotton wool, for instance, amounted in 1808 to 30,000 bales, worth 300,000*l.*

The revenue of Naples amounted, in 1810, to about 12,000,000 ducats (2,000,000*l.*), of which sum about one-half arose from the land tax, and the other half from indirect taxes. The expenditure amounted to about 13,500,000 ducats (2,250,000*l.*), so that a deficit remained of 1,500,000 ducats (250,000*l.*), to be adjusted, as soon happened, by the *sale of national property*. In 1814 the joint revenue of the state and the provinces was about 26,000,000 ducats (4,333,333*l.*)

The interest of the national debt, fixed as we have seen at 5 per cent.

per annum, was suddenly lowered to 3 per cent. This breach of public faith took place from the 1st of January, 1809. The capital of the national debt was reduced from 130,000,000 ducats, its amount in 1806, to 28,000,000, whereon the diminished interest was 840,000 ducats, (140,000*l.*)

In 1811 the army was re-organized and the navy recruited. The strength of the line was fixed at 60,000 and that of the militia at 40,000. The military college was converted into a polytechnic school, and special schools were established for the artillery and engineers. The conscription was introduced about the same time, without meeting with resistance or creating dissatisfaction. The *materiel* of the navy was strengthened by the addition of a line-of-battle-ship, two frigates, and many gun-boats, which were launched and equipped in 1810.

The proposed establishment of communal schools and provincial colleges had, as already stated, generally failed. In 1810 few schools were opened, and still fewer colleges were founded. The whole revenue of the latter seminaries was about 7,000 ducats (1,166*l.*) per annum, and the number of the scholars was less than 200. The divinity schools or seminaries of the church, had not more than 1,500 students of all ages. To promote the purposes of education, Joachim decreed that a primary school, or school for reading and writing, should be established in every commune; that secondary or classical schools should be founded in every province; that diocesan schools should be endowed for instruction in divinity; and lastly, that the University of Naples should be authorized to confer degrees in Law and Medicine. The education of females engaged public attention. Free schools for girls were founded in the capital and the provinces. One of these seminaries, first established at Aversa but afterwards removed to Naples, was endowed by Caroline Murat with 40,000 ducats (6,666*l.*) per annum. Some account of its present state will be found hereafter.

Such were the social and political changes introduced by the French invaders. In 1815 Joachim Murat, driven out by the Austrian forces, relinquished the throne of Naples to its ancient possessor, the exiled Ferdinand.

CHAPTER VI.

REIGN OF FERDINAND I. OVER SICILY ALONE, FROM 1806 TO 1815.

Ferdinand, on his return to Palermo in 1806, found his Sicilian subjects in much the same state in which he had left them. The principal nobility, who drew their incomes from landed property, were overwhelmed with debts and embarrassed with law suits; the gentry or middle classes, who had mortgages on estates, were involved in difficulties, from which extrication was hopeless; and the lower orders, composed of labourers and mechanics, ill paid and ill fed, completed the picture of misery. The most prosperous class of society was the regular clergy. The beneficed orders, consisting chiefly of the younger nobility, led an idle and luxurious life, dignified by the sounding title of "learned leisure," and "devout contemplation;" and the mendicant orders, recruited from among the peasantry, fattened upon the bounty of their charitable kinsfolk. Husbandry had fallen to decay in common with handicraft. The greater part of the territory lay waste, and one-third of that which was ploughed served for pasturage and fallows. Cultivation scarcely

extended beyond the neighbourhood of towns and villages. The breeds of horses and mules had degenerated from their former excellence; the various products of the flocks and herds served merely for home consumption; the farmers were prohibited from exporting their cattle, and the butchers were prevented from killing sheep and oxen oftener than once a week, lest beef and mutton should become scarce and dear. The only manufactures were those of silks and woollens, which were woven for domestic use. The art of mining was in its infancy. A little sulphur was extracted for the supply of foreign countries, and a little salt was excavated for the wants of the island. The foreign trade was in the hands of the French, the Genoese, and the Ragusans, by whom foreign manufactures were exchanged for Sicilian produce; the merchant-shiping consisted wholly of small craft, which found employment in the coasting trade and the trade with Malta.

The revenue, amounting to about 1,500,000 ounces (750,000*l.*) per annum, arose from direct and indirect taxes in the following proportion:—Direct taxes, 577,917 ounces (288,958*l.* 10*s.*); and indirect taxes, 922,083 ounces (461,041*l.* 10*s.*)

The direct taxes were voted by parliament, whose representatives, or deputies of the realm, raised and issued them as already explained. More than two-thirds were paid by the demesnal towns; the rest was a joint contribution of the barons and clergy. The indirect taxes fell upon all classes alike, and arose from customs and excise, &c. &c. One great item of public expenditure was the interest of the floating debt, which was paid to an immense multitude of Sicilian creditors.

The army was divided into the line and the militia. The line, chiefly composed of malefactors, was commanded by foreign adventurers; and such was the repugnance entertained for the service, that few of the Sicilians would accept commissions. The militia, consisting of 10,000 foot and 1,600 horse, was under the command of the Sicilian nobility. The line was charged with the safeguard of the capital and the coasts: the militia was entrusted with the care of the public peace, but the discipline of both corps was loose and irregular. The navy consisted of a few gun-boats, which cruized round the island to keep off the Barbary pirates, whose descents on the southern and western coasts were marked by robbery and bloodshed.

Such was the unhappy state of Sicily during the first four years after Ferdinand's return from Naples. In 1810 a change in the plan of taxation led to a reform in the system of government, too remarkable to be briefly passed over. The direct taxes produced, as stated, 577,917 ounces (288,958*l.*) a-year. This sum being insufficient for the wants, or rather the luxuries of the Court, the king asked the parliament of 1810 for a further sum of 360,000 ounces, under the specious name of a subsidy. The Military Arm, however, disregarding the application, reduced the subsidy granted by the other Arms to 215,000 ounces, and voted a whole supply of 792,000 ounces, (396,000*l.*) They proceeded still further. Struck with the inequality of the public burthens, as much as with their weight, the barons declared that the supply should be raised, not as formerly by throwing two-thirds on the demesne, and by dividing the remainder between themselves and the clergy, but by charging the net income of all estates, to whomsoever belonging, with *five per cent.*; a tax well calculated to produce the required amount. *This financial scheme, of which the Abate Balsamo was the author, and*

the Prince of Belmonte the patron and supporter, met with complete success, to the great dissatisfaction of the Court, by whom, as it touched the crown property, it was strongly opposed in its passage through parliament.

The Court, instead of reducing its expenses to the level of its income, persisted in spending money until its funds were exhausted. Bankrupt in capital and credit, it resorted to fraud and oppression to replenish its treasury. Three proclamations were accordingly issued on the 14th February, 1811; the *first* of which charged all payments made in *legal form* with a duty of one per cent. *ad valorem*; the *second* ordered certain demesnal estates to be sold by public auction; and the *third* appointed church property to be disposed of by lottery. These arbitrary measures totally miscarried. Payments in *legal form* were no longer made before notaries public, but in the presence of private friends; the demesnal estates were set up for sale without finding a single bidder; and the lottery failed altogether, as not half the tickets were sold, in spite of every exertion to cause them to be taken by the retainers of the Court. The queen, to whom the king now resigned the reins of government, resolved to wreak her vengeance upon the Princes of Belmonte and Castelnuovo, whom she looked upon as the chief cause of the late miscarriage. These noblemen, apprized of her intentions, determined to be beforehand with their implacable enemy. They accordingly sent in a memorial, signed by all the nobility of Palermo, requesting the king to abolish the one per cent. tax, and to trust to the bounty of parliament for the supply of his wants. The queen, enraged at the memorial, returned no answer, but caused its authors, together with their chief abettors, the Princes of Aci and Villafranca, and the Duke of Angio, to be arrested in the night and shipped off with all speed to the Sicilian Islets.

England, which had hitherto taken no part in the struggle between the Court and the parliament, moved at length by the wrongs of her own subjects, for which no redress could be had, and fearful lest the Sicilians, stung to madness by oppression, should throw themselves headlong into the arms of the French, now determined to interfere in the affairs of a country which she had long protected with a fleet and army, and enriched with an annual subsidy. Lord William Bentinck, her minister plenipotentiary and commander of the forces, being invested with full powers to act at discretion, hastened to require that all Neapolitans should be removed from Court, and that the council should be filled with Sicilians alone; that the exiled barons should be recalled to Palermo; that the one per cent. tax should cease to be levied; and that he himself should be appointed commander-in-chief of all the Sicilian forces. The Court, unable to resist the demands, but unwilling to comply with them, had recourse to trick, and returned an evasive answer. Bentinck, incensed at the subterfuge, and determined to bring matters to an issue, stopped the payment of the subsidy; and finding that the king was a mere tool in the hands of his artful consort, urged him to resign his power to his eldest son Francis. Ferdinand yielded with a bad grace; and on the 15th January, 1812, conferred the office of vicar-general upon the hereditary prince, and appointed Bentinck to the chief command of the Sicilian forces.

The five barons were no sooner recalled, than three of them, Belmonte,

Castelnuovo, and Aci, were made secretaries of state to the prince regent or vicar-general. The first step of the new ministers was to call parliament together. The meeting of the Three Arms took place on the 18th of July, 1812, upon which day a plan of reform, brought forward by the government, was carried unanimously. The plan was in substance as follows :—

I. The religion of the state was to be the Roman Catholic exclusively.
 II. The power of making the laws was to reside in parliament, and that of putting them in force in the crown.

III. The right of imposing taxes was vested in parliament, subject, however, to the king's approval.

IV. The administration of justice was confided to judges destined to be independent of the crown, and amenable only to parliament.

V. The king's person was declared to be inviolable.

VI. All public servants were to be accountable to parliament for the faithful discharge of their trusts and duties.

VII. The parliament was to be composed of two chambers; the one called the Chamber of Commons, or Representatives of Demesnal and Baronial Towns; the other called the Chamber of Peers, or the Assembly of Barons and Prelates. Every peer was to have one vote, and no more. The king to have the right of convoking, proroguing, and dissolving parliament, under the bounden duty to call parliament together once a-year at least.

VIII. No Sicilian was to be arrested, imprisoned, or banished, or in anywise molested, except by virtue of the established laws, and by the authority of a competent magistrate. All feudal lands were to become allodial or freehold, but to be inherited according to the rules of succession laid down in feudal families.

IX. Baronial jurisdiction was to be abolished, and the barons were to be relieved from the expense of administering justice. The barons were to retain their titles, and to be released from feudal services.

X. Every motion relative to subsidies was first to be made in the Chamber of Commons, and thence to be referred to the Chamber of Peers for approval or rejection without change or alteration. Motions on all other matters were to be made in either Chamber; the right of confirmation or disallowance resting with the Chamber to which such motions should happen to be referred.

As soon as these Articles had been sanctioned by the Regent, parliament proceeded with the work of constitutional reform. The legislative, executive, and judicial powers were separated from each other, and formed into independent branches. The succession to the throne was settled: the revenue of the state was fixed; and the expenditure regulated. The municipal institutions were recast upon a new and better model. The territory was divided into districts; feudal rights were abolished in common with entails; the liberty of the press was established with wholesome restrictions; the rights of citizens were acknowledged, and their duties laid down.

Some account of these reforms may not be out of place.

The king was authorized to create new peers from among such Sicilians as possessed landed property yielding 6,000 ounces (3,000*l.*) per annum. The Chamber of Commons was to consist of representatives of *districts, cities, and towns*, possessed of from 500 to 150 ounces per

annum, who were to be chosen by electors having incomes of 50 to 18 ounces per annum.

The king was empowered to make peace and war, to enter into treaties and alliances, to confer titles of nobility, and bestow decorations of honour; to coin money; to command the forces by sea and land, and to discharge the manifold duties of the royal office.

The administration of the laws, as already stated, was intrusted to a body of independent judges. Every officer of justice, who should take an accused person in custody, was to be furnished with a warrant setting forth the cause of the arrest. The party thus arrested was to be examined before a magistrate within twenty-four hours. Every prisoner accused of less than felony was to be allowed to give bail, and all evidence against him was to be taken in his presence. No judge or magistrate was to have recourse to torture; no untried person to be put in irons or thrown into dungeons. All ministers of justice were to be subject to parliamentary censure. Trial by jury was deferred for future consideration. Justices of the peace were to be established in all communes, and criminal courts in all districts. As to civil law, judges of the first and second instance were to be stationed in villages and towns, and civil tribunals in all districts. From the latter, appeal lay to city courts, and thence to a cassation court, to be established in Palermo. Causes between husbandmen or between mechanics were to be tried by juries of farmers or of tradesmen respectively.

The king was not to leave Sicily without the consent of parliament. In case he recovered his Neapolitan dominions, his Majesty was to send his eldest son to reign over Naples; or, if he preferred Naples to Sicily, his Majesty was then to surrender the crown of the latter to his eldest son, the realm of Sicily being declared to be independent of the realm of Naples, and of every other country or foreign dominion.

	Ounces.	£.
The revenue of the state was fixed at . . .	1,847,697	923,843
Deducting from which sum the British subsidy of	560,000	280,000
There remained to be paid by the Sicilians . . .	1,287,697	643,843

This net amount arose from direct taxes, such as the land-tax, and the tax on grinding corn; from indirect taxes, such as the customs, the lottery, fees of office, &c., and from temporary sources, as the produce of sequestered and confiscated property. The expenditure was estimated at 2,016,089 ounces (1,008,045*l.*), being 168,402 ounces (84,201*l.*) more than the gross amount of revenue. This deficit was covered shortly afterwards by raising the land-tax from 5 to 7½ per cent., and by laying a small duty on the export of wine.

The interests of communes were intrusted to civic councils and municipal magistrates. The council was charged with the care of the public granaries, and with the audit of the public accounts; and the municipal magistrates were the guardians of health, and the managers of the revenue. The transit duties were abolished, and the interchange of produce between one province and another was relieved from all obstruction.

The territory, divided from old times into three Vals, was distributed into twenty-three districts, each of which was intrusted to a captain-at-

arms, who, for handsome pay given to himself and followers, became answerable for all robberies committed within his walk between sunrise and sunset. This revived institution, we may remark, subsisted from 1812 to 1837, when, upon gens d'armes being introduced from Naples, it disappeared altogether, to the great dissatisfaction of the Sicilian public. The reason assigned for its abolition was, that it was "useless, and unsuited to the times."

The feudatories, or holders of fiefs, were, as before-mentioned, deprived of their rights, but released from existing obligations. Among the latter, entails held a prominent place. Ex-feudatories were now invested with new proprietary powers: such as were peers, were required to annex one-fourth of their formerly entailed estates as a *maggiorasco*, or heir-loom, to their titles of nobility; and such as were commoners were relieved from obligation; but all were prohibited from alienating more than one-third of their whole estate, and were required to leave the remainder to be equally distributed among their children and descendants.

Every Sicilian was allowed to print and publish his sentiments and opinions, without submitting his manuscript to a censor of the press; but no work upon religious matters could be printed without the sanction of the church authorities. Works of a profane, immoral, or seditious tendency, made the author liable to undergo the penalties of law. Every citizen had the right of speaking on public affairs, and of seeking redress for wrongs and grievances. No one could be imprisoned or punished by virtue of an *ex post facto* law. All priests and magistrates were enjoined to expound and explain the constitution at stated times, in order that no citizen might plead ignorance of the established law. No citizen would be allowed to vote at an election after 1840, who should not be capable of reading a printed book.

The royal assent was given to these acts in May, 1813, and the whole collection was published shortly afterwards, to the unspeakable joy of the Sicilian people.

The ancient parliament had been dissolved on the 4th November, 1812, and a new one, to which the country looked with hope and confidence, had been elected in the course of the following spring. Unhappily, these hopes were ill-founded. A contest for the presidency of the Chamber of Commons was followed by the stoppage of the subsidies, and a message from the crown proving ineffectual, the constitutional ministers resigned the seals of office to absolute royalists. The change of ministry was followed by the re-establishment of a "meta," or assize on provisions, and by the impeachment of the British generals, who were charged with having endeavoured to bring the plague into Sicily from Malta, where it was raging in all its fury. After a delay of three months, the subsidies were voted, before means had been provided for raising them by direct or indirect taxes; and parliament, after two prorogations, was dissolved on the 28th October, 1813. Such was the end of the first reformed parliament. That free assembly, destined by its constituents to complete the constitutional edifice, proved, by its violence and inconsistency, the cause of its precipitate downfall. Shortly before the dissolution, the royalist ministry had given place to a liberal cabinet, constructed under the auspices of Lord William Bentinck. The general election terminated in favour of the constitutional party, and the absolute royalists were almost everywhere thrown out. The new legislators

assembled at Palermo, and chose committees for preparing bills, composed of men of all parties, who undertook the task with cheerfulness, and went to work in good earnest.

Shortly before the opening of parliament, the king, who had lately been re-instated by a liberal ministry, dismissed his too generous opponents, and replaced them by absolute royalists. On the 16th July, 1814, Lord William Bentinck quitted Sicily for ever. Two days after his departure, parliament was opened by the king in person, who approved of the recent reforms, and exhorted the Chambers to persevere in their noble undertaking.

The Chamber of Peers had no sooner met, than it petitioned the king to dissolve parliament, on the pretence that the Chamber of Commons had been illegally chosen. This unreasonable prayer, to which the Commons offered no opposition, was readily granted, and the second reformed parliament was strangled in its birth. The Prince of Belmonte withdrew to France, and with him vanished the last hopes of a constitutional monarchy. A third reformed parliament, composed chiefly of royalists, met on the 22nd October, 1814, and sat, without doing aught but planning a new code, until the 17th May, 1815, when the Chambers were dissolved. The dissolution was final; and a parliament has not since met together in Sicily.

To disfigure the constitution, and to debase the government, now became the object of the triumphant court. Shortly before the last dissolution, a scheme for this purpose, drawn up by the royalist ministers, had been placed by the king in the hands of Castelnovo, who was asked to examine it at leisure. It proved to be a series of thirty articles, tending to destroy the constitution, of which the substance was as follows.

I. The king to have the exclusive right of proposing a law.

II. Either chamber of parliament to have the same privilege, with the king's consent, and to be allowed to petition the king to exercise his initiative or proposing power.

III. Persons occupying places under government to be allowed to hold seats in the Chamber of Commons.

IV. The liberty of the press to be allowed, under the restrictions prescribed in France by Louis XVIII.

V. The ordinary revenue of the state to be settled by parliament once in five years. The subsidies, composing the extraordinary revenue, to be settled by the king.

VI. The sovereignty of Naples and Sicily to be united, as heretofore.

VII. In case the king resided at Naples, 8,000 troops to be left in Sicily, at the charge of the Sicilian treasury.

Castelnovo, seeing clearly the insidious tendency of the scheme, returned the paper to the king without saying a single word, and, withdrawing from public life, retired into the country. It is needless to observe, that the scheme was never realized. Parliament, we have seen, had been dissolved on the 17th of May. On the 18th, the king embarked for Messina, whence he proceeded to Naples; and from the 4th of June, 1815, when Ferdinand arrived in the capital of the kingdom, the Sicilian constitution ceased to be acknowledged or mentioned by public authority.

CHAPTER VII.

REIGN OF FERDINAND I. OVER THE TWO SICILIES. PART. II., FROM 1815 TO 1825.

Naples.—Ferdinand, on his return from Sicily, found his Neapolitan dominions in an improved condition. Agriculture and manufactures flourished under better institutions than formerly. The civil laws, which, in 1805, had been scattered over a hundred volumes, and the criminal laws, which had been lost or dispersed among the public archives, were now collected, embodied, and harmonized; the deranged finances had been reduced to order; taxation had been remodelled; the funding system firmly established; and the internal government, formerly loose and unstable, had been consolidated under the name of a civil administration. The state of the military force was, indeed, deplorable. The army was broken up, and the navy almost destroyed; the country was, therefore, defenceless. The state of public instruction was more satisfactory, as popular education and religious worship had been placed upon better and more lasting foundations.

Between Ferdinand's restoration in 1815, and his death in 1825, the progress of the Neapolitan population was slow but steady. From about five millions, its amount in 1815, it rose to 5,034,191 in 1819, and in 1824 it exceeded five millions and a half; thus increasing at the rate of about five-tenths of one per cent. per annum.

The prosperity of manufactures was rather fleeting than permanent. Created by the Berlin and Milan decrees, it expired with the parent system. The Neapolitan weavers, unable to compete with the British, either in the quality or price of their goods, dismissed their workmen, sold off their stocks, and shut up their factories.

The restoration of Ferdinand was followed by the re-establishment of the bank of the Two Sicilies on a broader and firmer basis, and by the conclusion of commercial treaties with England, France, and Spain. These countries (the shipping of which had been exempted from search for about one hundred and fifty years), renounced their privileges, upon receiving a reduction of ten per cent. upon the amount of duties payable on their respective products imported into the Two Sicilies. The same reduction of duties was granted to the national flag in August, 1823, upon imports of whatsoever origin, upon the plea that foreign flags enjoyed advantage over the Sicilian to which they were not entitled.

The plan of government established by the French invaders was suddenly and materially altered, on the 8th December, 1816. By a royal decree, issued from Caserta, it was made known that the Congress of Vienna, having recognized Ferdinand as king of the Two Sicilies, his Majesty (laying aside the title of Ferdinand the Fourth of Naples and Third of Sicily,) would be styled thenceforth Ferdinand the First; that a general chancery should be established for the united kingdom, in which all the laws and decrees should be deposited and registered; and that a court of chancery should be instituted, in which public business, destined to come before the king in council, should undergo scrutiny and discussion.

The new institutions, thus abruptly introduced, lasted for about six years. In 1822 the court of chancery was abolished, to make room for a consulta of state.

The administration of justice, established by the French rulers, subsisted until 1819, when a new code of laws, modelled, in a great mea-

sure, on the Code Napoleon, and entitled the Code of the Two Sicilies, made its appearance as the authorized standard of national jurisprudence.

The reconstruction of the bench followed the reformation of the laws. The civil administration underwent no material change: the territorial division was slightly altered by the formation of a fifteenth province: the financial system continued the same. The revenue of the state amounted, in 1819, to 21,519,740 ducats, (3,586,623*l.*) In 1817, a sinking fund, endowed with a capital of 600,000 ducats (100,000*l.*), was established for the liquidation of the national debt. Proper attention was paid to the defence of the country: the army was recruited and re-organized: the line, raised by conscription, was carried by degrees up to 52,000 men; and a militia, composed of landowners, and consisting of twenty-one regiments, was enrolled for the better preservation of internal order.

The government of the church was settled on a new plan. By a concordat, made between the king and the Pope in 1818, it was stipulated that the number of bishoprics in Naples should be 109; that each should have a net revenue of not less than 3,000 ducats (500*l.*) per annum; that the incomes of the cathedral and the parochial clergy should be regulated by circumstances; that dissolved monasteries should be re-established, in so far as was practicable; that the right of nominating bishops should belong to the king, and the right of confirming such appointments to the pope; and, lastly, that the bishops should be authorized to prevent the clandestine circulation of irreligious books. By virtue of this concordat, the monastic orders and the Jesuits were recalled and re-instated in 1821.

Sicily.—We now turn our attention to Sicily, the relations of which island towards Naples were settled by a second Caserta decree of the 11th December, 1816, or three days after the first. By this decree it was ordered, that all civil and ecclesiastical offices in Sicily should be filled by Sicilians, to the exclusion of Neapolitans, who, on the other hand, should occupy the civil and ecclesiastical offices of Naples, to the exclusion of Sicilians. Moreover it was provided, that the archbishopric of Palermo, the appointment to which had been open to Neapolitans and Sicilians alike, should be reserved for Sicilian ecclesiastics; and that Sicilians should be admitted to all the great offices of the state, in proportion to the number of the Sicilians to the population of the kingdom. As, therefore, the Sicilians formed only one-fourth of the whole population, so they should be admitted to one-fourth only of the seats in the council of state, leaving the remaining three-fourths to be filled by Neapolitans. It was provided, that the same rule should be observed in the appointments to great offices in the royal household, the departments of state, and the diplomatic service; * that commissions in the army and navy, and minor offices at court, should be given to Neapolitans and Sicilians indiscriminately; that the government of the Two Sicilies should be vested in the king's person; that when the sovereign resided in Sicily, a prince of the blood, or a nobleman of high rank, should be left in Naples to act as lord-lieutenant; and that when the king resided

* The principle of *separate rights*, thus laid down, remained in force until 1837, when it yielded to the principle of *common possession*, which is now in full vigour.

at Naples, the same rule should be observed *vice versâ* with regard to Sicily: that the quota to be contributed by Sicily towards the revenue of the united kingdom should never, "without the consent of the Sicilian parliament," exceed 1,847,687 ounces (923,843*l.*) per annum, (that amount having been the sum voted by the parliament of 1813).

The last paragraph calls for a few remarks on its nature and tendency. The sum of 1,847,687 ounces, stated to be the sum voted by parliament in 1813, was the gross amount of revenue, from which, if the British subsidy of 560,000 ounces be deducted, there remains a net amount of 1,287,687 ounces only, which was the sum of all the taxes imposed in Sicily in 1813. The parenthesis, therefore, by insidiously confounding the partial sum of taxation with the gross amount of revenue, involves a practical untruth. Moreover, as no provision is made for the regular meeting of the legislature, the pretended security of parliamentary consent is hollow and worthless. The power of exacting whatsoever "quota" it may choose to fix, is thus given to the general government. In point of fact, the prescribed limit has been repeatedly passed, without the required consent of the Sicilian parliament having been first obtained, or even solicited, by the Crown.

The frame of government established by the Caserta decrees was disturbed for a moment by the Neapolitan and Sicilian revolutions of 1820. Upon the restoration of order in 1821, the several institutions of both countries were replaced on their former footing.

CHAPTER VIII.

REIGN OF FRANCIS OVER THE TWO SICILIES, FROM 1825 TO 1830.

Ferdinand I. was succeeded, on his death in 1825, by his eldest son, Francis, whose reign of five years presents nothing remarkable respecting Sicily, and but little concerning Naples. With respect to the latter country, the chief objects of interest are the revival of domestic manufactures, the establishment of bounties for distant navigation, the endowment of a sinking fund, the introduction of the *regia*, or farming of the taxes, and the taking of a census.

Each of these objects deserves brief consideration. A new tariff of the customs, imposing heavy duties upon foreign merchandize, having been published by Ferdinand shortly before his death, the weaving of cottons and woollens started up afresh in Naples. The manufacturers, who were mostly Germans, received great encouragement from Francis. Accommodated with public buildings to be turned into factories, and provided with work-people fed and clothed by the state, they readily placed their establishments on a firm foundation.

With the view of promoting navigation among the Neapolitans and Sicilians, reductions of twenty per cent. upon import duties on East and West India goods, and of ten per cent. on Baltic goods (over and above the ten per cent. allowed to the Sicilian flag), were granted to national vessels for the *first* voyage, provided they took outward cargoes of domestic produce. Under the reigning sovereign (we may mention beforehand), these bounties have been granted to national vessels for the *second* voyage also, under the same conditions.

In 1826, the sinking fund obtained a further endowment, which raised

its yearly income to 1,038,470 ducats, (173,078*l*.) Destined to pay off 2,770,850 ducats of the national *rentes* in 31 years and 5 months, (leaving the remaining 1,420,000 ducats as a permanent fund for investments and deposits,) this institution has hitherto answered its purpose.

A *regia*, or farming of the indirect taxes, was now introduced. Its principal object, which was to secure to the treasury a certain amount of annual revenue, has been fully attained. Any casual surplus is divided between the *regia* and the treasury, in the proportion of 55 per cent. to the former and 45 to the latter.

The revenue of the kingdom at the close of this reign amounted to 26,669,787 ducats (4,444,964*l*.), and the expenditure to 27,298,616 ducats (4,549,436*l*.); so that a deficit remained of 628,829 ducats (104,805*l*.)

At the beginning of 1827, a census was taken of the Neapolitan population. In the published results the males have been divided into two great classes—the employed and the unemployed. The first class was subdivided into two sections, viz., people in the public service, and people in private occupations; the first section embraced the army and navy, the regular and secular clergy, the civil servants, and public teachers; the second section included the members of the liberal professions, and persons in productive employments. Their respective numbers are shown in the following table.

Army and Navy	40,745		
Regular and Secular Clergy	36,067		
Civil Servants	25,035		
Public Teachers	5,642		
Total in the Public Service		107,489	
Lawyers	8,043		
Doctors, &c.	9,105		
Merchants	10,957		
Total of Professional People	28,105		
Husbandmen	1,475,314		
Shepherds	65,226		
Mechanics	316,122		
Total of Working People	1,856,662		
Total in Private Occupations		1,884,767	
Total of Males Employed			1,992,256
Unemployed			636,892
Total of Male Population			2,629,148

It appears, therefore, that in 1826 about three-fourths of the male population were variously employed, and the remaining fourth was unemployed. The proportion borne by the latter class to the whole population is undoubtedly large; but to him who bears in mind that this fourth includes the very young and very old, with all those incapacitated by physical or other causes, it will not appear excessive. It is smaller than the reports of travellers, which represent the Neapolitans as a nation of idlers, might have led us to expect.

Upon the death of Francis in 1830, Ferdinand, his eldest son, the present monarch, succeeded to the throne under the title of Ferdinand II.

In the concluding chapters we shall describe the present condition of the kingdom and of its population.

Statistics of the present Depression of Trade at Bolton; showing the mode in which it affects the different Classes of a Manufacturing Population. By HENRY ASHWORTH, Esq., one of the Directors of the Chamber of Commerce of Manchester.

To those who are unacquainted with the practical working of the Cotton manufacture, it may appear an easy task to curtail its production, in order to meet a casual diminution in demand. The spinner or manufacturer, however, four-fifths of whose capital is expended in buildings, machinery, &c., cannot close his establishment without incurring such heavy losses as would be ruinous to him, unless he possessed an ample reserved fund. Even to diminish his production, by working short time, is attended with heavy sacrifices. As great misapprehension has been shown to exist upon this point in influential quarters, the Directors of the Chamber of Commerce have obtained the subjoined estimate, the correctness of which they believe may be relied upon, relating to a mill of 52,000 spindles.

	£.	s.	d.
Capital invested in land, buildings, steam engines, gas works, warehouses, and all fixed requisites, 20,000 <i>l.</i> at 5 per cent. per annum	1,000	0	0
For repairs and dilapidations thereon, 2½ per cent.	500	0	0
Capital invested in machinery, 20,000 <i>l.</i> at 5 per cent. per annum	1,000	0	0
For deterioration by wear and tear, and for renewal when worked out, 7½ per cent. per annum	1,500	0	0
Capital for carrying on trade, stock and cotton 12,000 <i>l.</i> at 5 per cent. .	600	0	0
Insurance upon fixed property £15,000			
Machinery	18,000		
Stock of cotton and yarn	7,000		
<hr/>			
£40,000 at 14 <i>s.</i> per cent.	280	0	0
<hr/>			
Annual duty on insurance, 3 <i>s.</i>	60	0	0
Taxes, poor's rates, county, and other rates	220	0	0
Manager's salary	200	0	0
Overlooker	75	0	0
Engineer, 35 <i>s.</i> ; Assistant, 18 <i>s.</i> weekly	137	16	0
Watchman	52	0	0
Salesman	200	0	0
Book-keeper, porters, and packers	170	0	0
Horses, carts, and carters	300	0	0
School-room and schoolmaster, loss by	40	0	0
<hr/>			
Annual fixed charges	6,334	0	0
Or, 121 <i>l.</i> 16 <i>s.</i> weekly.			

A mill containing 52,000 spindles will produce 12,000 lbs. of yarn, the production of which will cost as follows:—

	£.	s.	d.
Fixed weekly outlay, as by preceding estimate	131	16	0
440 workpeople, at an average of 10 <i>s.</i> per week.	220	0	0
Coals for power and for warming the mill, equal together to 110 horse power	16	0	0
Weekly contingencies:—Oil, tallow, cloth, leather straps, bands, skips, cans, breakages, repairs by jobbing, mechanics, whitewashing, painting, windows, repairing floors and other current expenditure, formed upon an average of six months	56	0	0
<hr/>			
	292	0	0
<hr/>			
	£413	16	0

The cost therefore in fixed capital, labour, and contingencies, of a mill producing 12,000 lbs. of yarn is £. s. d. 413 16 0 or 8½d. per lb. But when times of pressure arise, and the proprietor is compelled to work his mill only three days per week, the cost of production will be as follows:—

	£.	s.	d.
Half the customary wages	110	0	0
„ „ coals	8	0	0
„ „ contingencies	28	0	0
	<hr/>		
	146	0	0
The weekly fixed expenses	121	16	0
	<hr/>		
		267	16 0

The production, thus reduced to 6,000 lbs., will cost 10½d.; " Causing a difference of 2½d. in the cost of production,—which is equal to a loss of 60l. 18s. per week, or 3,167l. 8s. per year.

To those who will duly weigh the above calculations, made by practical men, it will no longer be difficult to understand why an undiminished, or even increased, production goes on contemporaneously with losing prices. The manufacturer and spinner have only a choice of evils, and they choose the least. If the loss upon a full production be found, upon calculation, to be less than that incurred by working short time, they prefer the smaller sacrifice. And the Directors unhesitatingly declare their conviction, that it is upon the latter principle that a great proportion of the establishments in this district have been carried on at a loss during the last years. To the operatives who have thus been fully employed, the peculiar exigencies of the capitalists have so far been favourable; but it is an advantage which, should the present state of things continue, they cannot long enjoy.

As it usually happens that the principal amount of suffering falls upon the working classes, and as I find that nearly the same results are common to all manufacturing towns, I will adduce the best estimate I can obtain of the state of this neighbourhood, based, so far as regards the numbers unemployed, on statements made in writing by the several trade committees of the town, and on returns made by the proprietors of its several mills to one of the parish officers.

There are in Bolton, which contains a population of about 50,000, 50 mills, usually employing 8,124 workpeople; of these, there are 30 mills and 5,061 work-people, either standing idle or working only four days a-week.

Iron founders, engineers, millwrights, and machine makers.—In 1836, the number employed was 2,110; there are employed at present 1,325; discharged 785. A considerable number of these have left the country, some for the continent, others to America, carrying away their skill and our experience to aid our rivals. In 1836, these men were working over-time, and in some departments were making from 9 to 12 days a-week; whilst at present they are working on an average only four or five days a-week.

Carpenters.—In 1836, the number employed was 150; at present they are reduced to 49, leaving 101 who are permanently unemployed;—and in addition there are also 24 out of the 49 said to be employed, who

are disengaged at the present time,—making 125 out of the 150 who are thrown idle.

Brick-setters.—In 1836, the number employed was 120; at present it is reduced to 16; leaving 104 who are unemployed: in many places they have left town, on the tramp, and some are gone to America.

Stone-masons.—In 1836, the number employed was 150; there are 50 employed at present; leaving 100 who are unemployed, and in many cases suffering most severely. Some have gone to Australia.

Tailors.—In 1836, the number of tailors and slopworkers in the town was 500, and these were fully employed; at present there are only 250, and they are but partially employed, leaving 250 who are unemployed. Some have left the town, and others are gone to America or Australia.

Shoemakers.—In 1836, the number fully employed was 80; at present there are only about 40 employed, and in many cases they have only one or two days' work in the week, leaving 40 who are unemployed; and those who are in work, and in the association, are called upon to furnish casual relief to about 70 tramps per month, who are passing through the town in search of employment.

The following is the estimated loss per week to the town upon the foregoing trades :—

	£.
<i>Mills</i> .—Take the 5,000 factory workers, who are either unemployed or working four days a-week, and consider them as a whole, as receiving half wages of 10s. per week for full time,—say 5,000 at 5s.	1,250
<i>Iron Founders, Engineers, Millwrights, and Machine-makers</i> .—Take the sum of their wages in 1836, when there were 2,110 hands, some of whom received nine or twelve days' wages per week, and deduct therefrom the supposed wages of the 1,325, who are now either fully or partially employed, and the reduction will be	1,400
<i>Carpenters</i> .—In 1836, 150 employed at 24s. per week, is £180 0 0\	150
Deduct 25 now employed at 24s.	30 0 0\
<i>Brick-setters</i> .—In 1836, 120 employed at 24s. per week, is 145 0 0\	125
Deduct 16 now employed at 24s.	19 4 0\
<i>Masons</i> .—In 1836, 150 employed at 21s. per week, is . 157 10 0\	105
Deduct 16 now employed	52 10 0\
<i>Tailors</i> .—In 1836, 500 employed at 20s.	500 0 0\
Deduct 250 now employed partially	250 0 0\
<i>Shoemakers</i> .—In 1836, 80 employed at 15s.	60 0 0\
Deduct 40 now employed, partially	30 0 0\
Or, 171,600 <i>l.</i> per annum	£3,300
Add to these for the trades not estimated, say 30,000 <i>l.</i> , and we arrive at a loss upon wages alone of	201,600
But if we estimate the comparison of their comfort by the year 1835, when they had full work, and wheat was 39 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i> per quarter, we must add the increased cost of their food; and taking workhouse allowance, or 2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per head per week on the whole population of 50,000 persons or 10 <i>d.</i> per head, the loss upon food will be	118,960
	<u>£320,560</u>

Thus showing a reduction in their circumstances equal to 1000*l.* for every working day; a sum far beyond the means of charity to alleviate. *Indeed were the poor's rates and charity funds to be increased to the*

extent of 6,000*l.* a-year, they would be deemed burthensome to many, though it is only the estimated loss of a single week.

The people are a noble-minded class: they naturally dread pauperism, and make all sorts of shifts and sacrifices to live above it, by pledging and selling their furniture, and even their clothing; their food is deficient, their physical strength greatly reduced, and the rate of mortality is rapidly increasing. Of the prevalence of destitution, some estimate may be formed from the following disclosures, which have been attested as the result of a recent inquiry.

Summary of particulars derived from a Survey of the Cases of Distress in the borough of Bolton, December 1841, made under the direction of a Committee of Inhabitants, by Agents signing the Returns.

1,003 families were visited, consisting of 5,305 persons.¹

	£.	s.	d.
Their net earnings per week were	329	15	7
Parish relief and donations from funds or charities	52	8	5
	<hr/>		
Amount of weekly rents, if paid	£392	4	0
	82	3	4
	<hr/>		
Left for food, fire, clothing, &c. &c.	310	0	8
	<hr/>		

Making an average of from 1*s.* 2*d.* to 1*s.* 2½*d.* per head per week.

The number of families out of 1,003 having beds were 950; and in the whole there were found 1,553 beds. 716 were filled with flocks, the remainder with chaff, straw, or cotton waste.

466 blankets were found among them, being about 10½ persons to each blanket.

53 families were wholly without beds, and 425 persons were sleeping on the floor.

In articles of furniture—

1,380 tables were found amongst the whole.

2,876 chairs } or 3,518 seats, being two seats for every three persons.
642 stools }

511 families were accustomed to pawning.

609 families had no change of linen.

The Bolton Poor Protection Society relieved between 22nd December, 1841, and 22nd January, 1842,

6,167 persons whose income averaged 11¾ <i>d.</i> per head per week.	
Amount expended in relief	£305 18 9½
and rejected 828 whose income averaged 1 <i>s.</i> 9½ <i>d.</i> per head per week	73 14 5½
	<hr/>
	£379 13 3
	<hr/>

Applicants 6,995, average income 1*s.* 1*d.*

Amongst the 5,305 persons visited in Bolton, and the 6,167 relieved by the Poor Protection Society, there are many whose earnings were only 11*d.* per head per week. Perhaps it would afford a painful interest to describe how so small a sum requires to be expended. The following shows its outlay, and in addition, that of three other families, each consisting of a man and his wife with four children.

Statement of Four Cases, showing the manner in which a Man and his Wife with four Children spend their weekly Earnings.

Amount of } Earnings. }	{ No. 1. 5s. 6d.		No. 2. 10s.		No. 3. 15s. 6d.		No. 4. 26s. 6d.	
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Bread and flour . .	1	9	2	6	3	6	4	0
Oatmeal	1	0	1	10	1	6	2	0
Potatoes	0	10	1	8	1	9	1	8
Milk	0	11	0	6	0	9	0	10
Butter	0	10	1	4
Butcher's meat	0	9	1	9
Bacon	0	2	0	8	0	4	0	3
Cheese	0	7	0	10
Ale or beer	0	6
Total of agricul- tural food . . }	4 8		7 2		10 0		13 2	
Sugar and treacle	0	5	0	11	1	9
Tea and coffee	0	7	1	2
Soap and candles . .	0	4	0	6	0	8	1	0
Tobacco, snuff, and condiments . . }	0	2	0	4	0	11
Medicine and attend- ance }	0	4
Total of excise- able articles . . }	0 4		1 1		2 6		5 2	
Clothing	0	6	0	9	2	0
Education	0	6
Sick societies	0	6	0	6
Coal	0	6	0	9	0	9	1	4
Rent	0	6	1	0	2	6
Savings	1	4
Total of articles needful and inci- dental }	0 6		1 9		3 0		8 2	
Total	5 6		10 0		15 6		26 6	

The first range of this table shows the amount of each kind of agricultural food consumed by the various families from the lowest point of No. 1. to the trebled allowance of the family No. 4. By the second item, the excisable articles, it is seen at what point of their earnings that description of their luxuries begins, and the rate at which it increases and comes in aid of the revenue. The third item, clothing and incidentals, advances rapidly in amount after 15s. per week; and with this enlargement of income we observe the prudential habits, money savings, benefit societies, a dread of pauperism, and an inclination to educate, and take every care to provide for their offspring.

I do not mean to represent the whole population as enduring the distressing privations above described, but there is a large number of persons who are just above, although fast descending into, that state, and others who are enjoying various grades of comfort; whilst in all the concerns of the leading manufacturers, whose command of money has enabled them to work their mills on full time, regardless of losses, there are large numbers above want, and some who enjoy small luxuries, such as a house with *three sleeping rooms*, enabling them to cultivate delicacy in their families, who have a good stock of books, furniture, and clothing.

and educate their children even at some sacrifice of their earnings,—indications which lead to a gratifying estimate of their tastes and feelings. It is now, however, becoming a question how long the employers can continue to carry on their business under this pressure.

An examination of the returns made by the agents of the Bolton Poor Protection Society, which have been placed by Mr. Ashworth in the hands of the Council of the Statistical Society for that purpose, yields some very interesting results, which will serve to illustrate and corroborate several of the statements contained in the foregoing paper.

With regard, first, to the occupations of the 1,003 families visited by this Society, it appears that in 472 cases, or nearly one-half, the head of the family was employed in the cotton manufacture, to which number must probably be added a considerable portion of the 106 families of widows and deserted females. Persons engaged in handicraft form between a fourth and a fifth of the whole number, and labourers between a sixth and a seventh. The number of mechanics is small.

Of the weavers . . . 1 in $6\frac{1}{2}$ was in full work, and 1 in $5\frac{1}{2}$ in part work.
 spinners . . . 1 39 " " $4\frac{1}{2}$ "
 cotton hands . . . 1 25 " " $5\frac{1}{2}$ "
 artisans . . . 1 20 " " 5 "
 labourers . . . 1 17 " " 5 "
 mechanics . . . 1 15 " " $10\frac{1}{2}$ "

It will also be seen that there was a correspondingly greater average of earnings among the families engaged in the cotton manufacture, and that the weavers obtained the highest rate, viz. :—

Weavers 1s. $5\frac{1}{2}$ d. per individual weekly.
 Cotton hands 1 $5\frac{1}{2}$ "
 Spinners 1 $3\frac{1}{2}$ "
 Labourers 1 1 "
 Artisans 1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
 Mechanics 0 $7\frac{1}{2}$ "

The distress among the mechanics is greater than among any other class; and upon these it presses the more severely, as their earnings, in times of ordinary trade, are probably above the average of the other classes.

These facts serve to corroborate the statement that the necessity which urges the manufacturer to keep his machinery at work tends greatly to the advantage of the factory hands, and that the effect of a stagnation of trade is first and most severely felt by the mechanic and artisan.

Occupations.	Number of Families.	Number of Individuals.	In full Work.	In part Work.	Out of Work.	Earnings.	Parochial Relief.	Average Earnings per individual, exclusive of Parochial Relief.
						£. s. d.	£. s. d.	s. d.
Weavers . .	303	1,637	250	296	103	121 13 8	9 11 9	1 5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Spinners . .	87	427	11	100	56	27 14 0	4 0 9	1 3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Cotton hands . .	82	422	17	81	62	29 7 5	1 18 0	1 4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Widows and deserted females. }	106	478	37	140	73	26 9 8	7 8 0	1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Aged	6	19	1	2	14	0 14 0	0 7 6	0 8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Handicraft . .	223	1,205	60	246	186	64 15 8	5 6 0	1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Labourers . .	152	847	50	174	113	46 6 11	5 9 1	1 1
Hucksters . .	12	57	5	21	3	3 7 11	0 4 0	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Mechanics . .	21	151	10	14	26	4 18 10	0 14 6	0 7 $\frac{1}{2}$
No occupation .	11	62	2	6	20	3 7 6	1 3 9	1 1
Total . .	1,003	5,305	443	1,080	656	329 15 7	36 3 4	1 2 $\frac{1}{2}$

The earnings of the 1,003 families are stated as follows:—

	s.	d.		s.	d.	
Receiving	1	0	per week	1	0	10
„	1	0	and not exceeding	1	6	19
„	1	6	„	2	0	32
„	2	0	„	2	6	30
„	2	6	„	5	0	182
„	5	0	„	7	6	174
„	7	6	„	10	0	206
„	10	0	„	12	6	106
„	12	6	„	15	0	58
„	15	0	„	20	0	38
„	20	0	„	30	0	4
						864
Not earning any wages						139
Total						1,003

The total amount, as shown in the preceding table, was 329*l.* 15*s.* 7*d.*, to which was added from the parish funds 36*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*, making a total of 365*l.* 18*s.* 11*d.* From this the deduction for rent alone, supposing it to be paid, was 82*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*, or 4*s.* 6*d.* in the pound. The following is an analysis of the weekly rates of payment:—

	s.	d.		s.	d.	
Number of families paying	0	6		1	0	38
„	0	6	and not exceeding	1	6	179
„	1	0	„	1	6	368
„	1	6	„	2	0	238
„	2	0	„	2	6	63
„	2	6	„	3	0	11
						897
Not paying any rent						106
Total						1,003

The effect of a suspension of business in forcing the work-people to pledge and sell their clothing and furniture, and reducing them rapidly to a state of destitution, is shown in a striking manner by some facts that were noticed in this inquiry. One or two of the agents employed took an account of the number of pawn tickets which each family possessed, and of the value of their furniture, according to the estimate which they were induced to form of it. The number of families with regard to which these facts are recorded, amount to more than 200, but as they are not selected cases, they will serve as specimens of the whole body, although of course there may have been some families who were in a somewhat more favourable condition.

The number of families possessing not more than five pawn tickets, was	19
From 5 to 10	31
From 10 to 15	30
From 15 to 20	42
From 20 to 25	31
From 25 to 30	30
From 30 to 35	17
From 35 to 40	7
From 40 to 45	6
From 45 to 50	4
From 50 to 55	1
From 129	1

Total 219

This last individual was a tailor, having a wife and three children, and earning 5s. per week. His furniture was estimated at 3s.

The value of the furniture in the 246 cases observed averaged only 5s. 6d.

	s.	d.		s.	d.	
It did not exceed 1	0	in	.	.	.	20 cases.
Above 1	0	and not exceeding 2	0	.	.	13
Above 2	0	„	3	0	.	26
Above 3	0	„	4	0	.	58
Above 4	0	„	5	0	.	28
Above 5	0	„	6	0	.	21
Above 6	0	„	7	0	.	18
Above 7	0	„	8	0	.	11
Above 8	0	„	9	0	.	14
Above 9	0	„	10	0	.	12
Above 10	0	„	16	0	.	12
Above 15	0	„	20	0	.	13
Total						246

Those who are acquainted with the feelings and habits of the working classes, and know the pride which they usually entertain in possessing solid and sometimes even showy pieces of furniture, will appreciate the extent of the distress which in these cases had forced them to denude their apartments, and deprive themselves both of the comfort and appearance of respectability which they afforded. As for the most part the inquiry with regard to furniture and pawn tickets relates to the same families, there is evidence of their having once, and that recently, possessed superior means. It does not appear whether the pawn tickets apply to furniture or clothing; but if to the latter only, there can be little doubt that whatever furniture these destitute families formerly possessed had already been disposed of, and that their clothing, seldom too ample in the best of times, had been their next and last resource.

Report of Private Medical Practice for 1840. By CHARLES COWAN, M.D. E. and P., Physician to the Royal Berkshire Hospital and Reading Dispensary, F.S.S. &c.

THE following Report has been drawn up in accordance with the plan of registration detailed in the Ninth Volume of the "Transactions of the Provincial Medical and Surgical Association." It includes all cases, gratuitous and others, which have presented themselves during the past year, exclusive of those treated in the public institutions of the town. The details are limited to the facts which the register actually contains, our object being simply to illustrate the value and practical working of the forms we have ventured to recommend, without concealing the difficulties or imperfections attached to even a brief entry of any large number of cases. Were one hundred practitioners annually to publish the results of their experience on any uniform and comprehensive plan, much valuable information, as to the locality and treatment of disease, would be obtained, and many points in the natural history of particular com-

plaints, now uncertain or contested, might be satisfactorily demonstrated and for ever set at rest.

The value of registration might, we think, be materially increased, and greater facility afforded, were a short outline of the leading and more prominent features of disease faithfully sketched, so that in the record of cases the negative or affirmative of particular facts might be invariably noticed. This would ensure a certain number of definite results, and render the labour of different observers convergent and comparable; while it would habituate the mind to rapid and correct observation, direct our attention to what was really important, and impart the satisfaction of feeling that we were not toiling in vain. A synopsis so constructed would soon be familiar to the memory, and by a few brief words more really essential points might be secured than are often included in pages of unmethodised description.

The plan we have pursued in drawing up the present Report is that of first revising the whole, and deducing the general results; and then analysing particular groups of disease; detailing individual cases of more than common interest, and appending any brief explanatory remarks which the facts might suggest.*

To accomplish this it was necessary to construct, in the first place, general, and then secondary tables, and to frame these in relation to the nature and number of the details as noted in the register. This was a work requiring time and labour, but those who may undertake a similar task will not fail to discover its utility and advantage. There is a value in numerical researches which cannot be too highly estimated. The mere aggregation of numerous analogous facts elicits unexpected results, and often falsifies the conclusions of unrecorded experience. We are enabled to recognise peculiarities in the history, diagnosis, or treatment of disease, which would otherwise have been overlooked; and the nature and extent of our practice is very differently impressed upon the mind than when portrayed in the dim chambers of unaided memory.

We shall now proceed to report generally upon the cases before us, appending occasional explanatory remarks.

General Report.

Total number of Patients	1349
Males	433
Females	916
Of these 993 were inhabitants of Reading. 356 were from country districts.	
Of the males above 20	204
{ Married	102
{ Single	435
Of the women above 16	306
{ Married	
{ Single	

Seasons.—Winter, 254. Spring, 375. Summer, 372. Autumn, 348.

* As this latter portion of the report belongs to medical rather than to statistical science, it has been here omitted.

Occupations.

Housewives	369	Clerks	6
Domestics	114	Bakers	6
Labourers	54	Hatters	5
Sempstresses	29	Weavers	4
Carpenters	25	Bargemen	4
Shoemakers	20	Outlers	4
Smiths	18	Wheelwrights	3
Iron founders	11	Laundresses	3
Shopkeepers	12	Brewer's men	3
Publicans	9	Millers	2
Bricklayers	6		

The remainder present only single instances and need not be detailed. A large number had no occupation.

Ages.

	No. of Cases.
Under 12 months	42
From 1 to 3 years	62
" 3 to 10 "	91
" 10 to 20 "	211
" 20 to 30 "	352
" 30 to 40 "	231
" 40 to 50 "	170
" 50 to 60 "	109
" 60 to 70 "	61
" 70 to 80 "	19
" 80 to 90 "	1
Total	1349

Anterior duration of Cases.

Under a week	129
" month	290
From 1 to 3 months	353
" 3 to 6 "	191
" 6 to 12 "	130
" 1 to 2 years	121
" 2 to 3 "	83
" 3 to 5 "	42
" 5 to 10 "	23
" 10 to 20 "	24
Several years (number not known)	63
Total	1349

Results.

Cured	549
Irregular	411
Relieved	184
Died	23
Transferred to hospital or dispensary	88
Remaining under treatment	94
Total	1349

Average duration of Treatment.

Of 523 Cases it was 21 days and one-seventh.

Remarks.—There are several accidental reasons which increase the number of female applicants. Men are less inclined to resort to physic for every passing ailment; they have less time and opportunity for doing

so; from greater vigour of constitution and a more nourishing diet they are less seriously affected; their nervous system is less excitable and their moral sensibility less acute; and, besides many sexual exemptions, the proportion of such cases is, from evident causes, less in a physician's than a surgeon's practice.

The absence of extensive manufactories, and the size of Reading, would render an analysis of the difference in the diseases of the town and country useless. The number of entries in the different seasons is dependent partly on the fineness of the weather, as well as on the prevalence of disease, many coming from a distance.

The list of occupations presents nothing worthy of special remark.

The table of ages shows the great preponderance of applicants in the middle, and what we might justly call the more healthy periods of life. But though the natural functions are then most vigorous, yet the greater exposure to external influences, the struggling for bare support, the turmoil of the passions, the blighted hopes, the ambitious cravings, the sensual as well as mental excesses,—all combine to excite disease, and to render this portion of our existence the most stormy, and the functional disturbances the most frequent and complicated. It would seem, in fact, to present the maximum of disease, though not of mortality.

The table of the "Anterior Duration of Disease" cannot be regarded as more than an approximation to the truth. Strict accuracy, in the majority of instances, is impossible; but notwithstanding necessary error, a distinct line can, in large numbers, be drawn between chronic and acute diseases. It will be seen that two-thirds of the whole exceeded a month's duration, and that one-fourth exceeded twelve months, proving the very large proportion of chronic cases. This depends on the nature of a physician's practice. The great majority of applicants have already consulted a surgeon; many, after having for years been seeking relief from a succession of medical men, are attracted by a fresh name, and from renewed hopes are often for a time benefited, until the novelty wears off. Another reason is, that as many come from a distance, those suffering from acute and more dangerous disorders are prevented from applying. This fact would also partly account for the proportion of adults in the middle period of life.

Results.—The large number marked "irregular" depends upon several causes. It includes, in the first place, all of whom the result was not known. Some, finding the medicine too expensive, never return; others are too distant to repeat the visit; others get well from the first prescription, or are satisfied with the amount of relief obtained. Some, experiencing no benefit, seek other advice; others become too ill to continue attendance, or they die; some merely come for an opinion; and lastly, many are probably forgotten to be inserted when discharged, owing to the want of diligence and zeal in the reporter.

The column "Relieved" includes the incurable cases where the symptoms were palliated, as well as those which were convalescent. The 23 deaths cannot be regarded as any real test of the actual mortality, the majority of the incurable cases dying under other treatment.

The causes of death in those noted were as follows:—phthisis 6, peritonitis 3, morbus cordis and bronchitis each 2, pneumonia, dentition, perforated bowel, caries, menorrhagia, fever, apoplexy, epilepsy, enteritis and Bright's disease each 1.

*Nosological Classification.**

This has been arranged according to the system adopted by the Registrar-General, and the following is a summary in the order of frequency:—

	Of the Whole.
Diseases of the Digestive Organs . . .	428 = 32·3 or $\frac{1}{3}$ d.
Generative Organs . . .	153 = 11·6 or $\frac{1}{8}$ th.
Respiratory Organs . . .	145 = 11·0 or $\frac{1}{8}$ th.
Uncertain Seat . . .	141 = 10·7 or $\frac{1}{8}$ th.
Nervous System . . .	134 = 10·0 or $\frac{1}{8}$ th.
Skin and Cellular Tissue . . .	121 = 9·1 or $\frac{1}{8}$ th.
Epidemic and Contagious Diseases . . .	81 = 6·1 or $\frac{1}{16}$ th.
Diseases of the Organs of Locomotion . . .	60 = 4·5 or $\frac{1}{22}$ d.
Circulation . . .	32 = 2·4 or $\frac{1}{40}$ th.
Urinary Organs . . .	23 = 1·7 or $\frac{1}{60}$ th.
Senses . . .	8 = 0·6 or $\frac{1}{165}$ d.
Total . . .	1,326 = 100·
Omitted . . .	23
	<hr/> 1,349 <hr/>

Remarks.—There are many causes which tend to alter the relative proportion of particular diseases, some of which are accidental, others necessary. The surgeon's statistics would, of course, be in some respects different from those of the physician, and a list of cases in private practice, and of those attended at their own homes, would vary from one consisting of cases seeking from a distance gratuitous relief. The habits and denseness of the population, local peculiarities, the number and nature of public institutions, the presence of manufactures, and the regular or irregular supply of the necessaries of life, would also materially modify the relative prevalence of particular diseases; while some influence must be attributed to the standing and character of the practitioner himself. A reputation for the cure of certain forms of disease, is almost necessarily acquired by every medical man, either from accidental or deserved success, or from taste and opportunity, combining to determine a preference. Every one must be conscious of inequalities of professional tact, and of unequal interest in the cases he is called upon to treat, and this is ultimately felt by the public, and determines more or less the amount and nature of individual practice.

Another important source of error in nosological classification arises from deficiencies in the medical knowledge and theory of the reporter. Inaccuracy of diagnosis from ignorance or inattention, may tend to the grouping of heterogeneous diseases; and on the other hand, the force of hypothesis may so coerce the judgment, and cloud the discrimination of the observer, that distinct morbid conditions may be confounded under some vague theoretical term, which is a substitute for distinctness of idea, and patient investigation.

Another obstacle to correctness arises from the real difficulty of arriving, in many cases, at a definite and characteristic diagnosis, even by the most enlightened practitioner. Disease often fails to present those clear outlines by which its nature and locality are easily recognised. Simplicity, especially in chronic affections, is the exception, not the rule,

* As the details of this classification present no results of interest to the statistic, and the system has been made generally known by the Reports of the Registrar General, the summary alone is inserted.

and such is the indistinctness and complication of a large number of cases daily encountered, that the symptoms might be designated by different appellations, with an almost equal plausibility. How easy, for instance, to vary the term by which are defined the Protean disturbances of the digestive organs? How easy to ascribe a thousand anomalous symptoms to some assumed cause of constitutional disturbance, which has been adopted as our pathological creed? The gastric mucous membrane is selected by one observer—the liver by a second—the colon by a third—the brain by a fourth; and it often happens that the mind is so pre-occupied by these engrossing ideas, that the state of other organs is seldom carefully investigated; organic disease is overlooked, and sympathetic are mistaken for primary derangements. There is also the opposite danger of confining the diagnosis to some prominent symptom, to the exclusion of the constitutional condition, of which the former is only one of the indications; a condition, it is true, not always easily defined, but to remedy which is the object of correct and successful practice.

One means of greater precision in doubtful cases is to insert in the column for diagnosis, two or more of the prominent symptoms, and when revising the register, to select the one which the progress, treatment, and result, seem most to sanction. This is the plan we have endeavoured to follow, and though leaving much to be desired, we believe it one of the safest precautions in our power to employ.

The necessity of different observers combining their results, before the medical statistics of any locality can be fairly deduced must be apparent from what has now been stated.

The reader will remark, in our present summary, the very large preponderance of diseases of the digestive organs, compared with those of the respiratory and circulating systems. This, no doubt, partly depends on the chronic nature and great prevalence of the former complaints, their frequent recurrence from the continuance of the exciting cause, and the state of mind with which these affections are often allied, rendering patients fond of changing their attendant, and of taking physic. The frequency of female, nervous, and skin diseases in a physician's practice is also evident; and if any safe general conclusion can be drawn from a glance at the whole, it would be favourable to the healthiness of the district, judging from the small proportion of contagious and endemic diseases.

Eighth Annual Report of the Council of the Statistical Society of London, Session 1841-42.

THE Council has much pleasure in being able to report that the condition and prospects of the Society continue satisfactory.

Although it has been deemed expedient, with the view of placing the finances of the Society on a sound footing, to refrain during the past year from undertaking any original inquiry, involving an outlay of money, the attention which has been paid to the Society's proceedings, the numerous inquiries that have been made regarding its objects and progress, and the large number of new Fellows who have been elected during the past Session, testify that the reputation of the Society is not only firmly established, but is becoming more widely known, and that the Council has been justified in the course which it has deemed prudent

to adopt, of endeavouring as a primary object to equalize the income and expenditure of the Society.

Upon this point the Council are able to report very favourably. The income has advanced from 853*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.* to 982*l.* 0*s.* 5*d.*; outstanding bills to the extent of 274*l.* 13*s.* 9*d.* have been paid off; and the liabilities at the close of the past year are less than half what they were at the corresponding period of the previous year, while the amount of stock remains undiminished. There is every reason to hope that at the end of the present year the remaining sum, with all the engagements of the year, will be liquidated, and that some extension may then be given to the active operations of the Society.

To this result the Council looks with much anxiety, their attention having long been directed to a removal to more commodious apartments. The difficulty of finding suitable accommodation in a convenient situation has been found greater than may probably be imagined; but the amount of rent required for eligible apartments has hitherto been so far beyond the means of the Society, as to put a stop to every negotiation. An opening, however, has lately presented itself for procuring, in the course of a few months, excellent accommodation at a moderate rent under the Crown, and when the time arrives, the Council will use its best vigilance and efforts to profit by the opportunity. It will then be able to consider the steps which may be advantageously taken for enlarging and completing the library, so as to make it as perfect as the means of the Society will admit for purposes of statistical reference. The valuable classed catalogue of the works at present in the library, which has been finished during the past year, under the superintendence, and with the personal assistance of Dr. Guy, has been found greatly to facilitate research, and the thanks of the Society are particularly due to that gentleman for the large amount of time and labour which he has devoted to their service in this work.

Another object to which the Council looks in a change of apartments is an increase of accommodation for the evening meetings. Those members who have been in the habit of attending these meetings will bear testimony to the high value and interest of many of the papers which have been brought before them, and to the instructive nature of the discussions on statistical points to which they have frequently given rise. The Council have every reason to believe that if they could offer more commodious apartments for their meetings a much larger number of Fellows would attend them; the increased attendance being in itself a gratifying testimony to the Society's augmenting claims to public confidence as a national centre for the collection of facts determining the condition and prospects of society, whether at home or abroad, exempt from all feelings but that of devotion to the advancement of moral science.

To make the Society the depository of all that is known on the subject of its investigations, to point out unexplored fields of observation, and encourage and guide the labourer prepared to enter upon them; to afford every facility to the adducing of new facts; and to apply every stimulus to their production, are the purposes to which the Council are most desirous of directing their efforts. In lieu, therefore, of expending further sums upon the collection of new data, which to give them value must be collected on a scale demanding rather the funds of a Government

or of a principal body than the limited revenue which is placed at their disposal, they have husbanded the resources of the Society with a view for the present to the improvement of its library, and of its place of meeting. Additions to the library would probably be made with most advantage to the members of the Society, and with the best security for their meeting its most pressing wants, were Committees voluntarily formed by members for investigating the present state of knowledge in the different branches of statistical investigation in which they feel most interested. The Sixth Annual Report of the Council marks out the provinces into which such investigation appears to be readily divisible; and the Council will consider recommendation of works for purchase emanating from such Committees, as taking precedence of all others, at the same time that they still call attention to the book on their table, which is constantly open for suggestions.

The number of ordinary members at the date of the last Report was 424; it is at present 435. Sir Francis D'Ivernois, of Geneva, and M. Le Play, of Paris, have been elected foreign members during the past year. The total number of foreign members is now 24, and the number of corresponding members 9.

During the past Session, the Council have been able to bring before the Society some valuable reports, prepared either by a Committee of their body, or by individual members of it at their instigation; and among these they may mention Mr. Farr's important Report on the Mortality of Lunatics; Mr. Rowland Hill's early announcement of the results of the New Postage arrangements; Mr. Porter's examination of the published results of the late Census; and the Second Report of the Vital Statistics Committee on the health of the Troops in the Tenasserim provinces, all of which have appeared in the Journal, and attracted much attention.

With regard to the Statistics of Lunacy, a subject which the Council noticed in their last Report, they regret to state that their application to the Metropolitan Commissioners in Lunacy, for permission to obtain from their registers tabular statements of their statistical results, has not met with success. The objects of the Council are, however, likely to be carried out in the county asylums in a very satisfactory manner, as it is understood that a convention of the medical officers of those establishments has been arranged, and will take place in the course of the present year, at which measures will be adopted for obtaining systematic returns from the several asylums.

The Committee for prosecuting inquiries relating to Vital Statistics has issued a form to the several London hospitals, for the registration and annual collection of their experience, and has met with considerable success; returns from eight of the principal hospitals having been received, and a wish expressed on the part of the medical officers to co-operate with the Committee, in order to facilitate its objects.

The Committees appointed to inquire into the subjects of a Cadastre and Registration, have applied, and are waiting for information relating to the mode of conducting such operations in foreign countries, the possession of which is requisite for a due consideration of these subjects.

The Education Committee is prepared with its Report upon the schools in Finsbury, and will append to it a statement of the results of the census, as regards the number of teachers and scholars in that district.

A subsidiary inquiry based on the data supplied by the census, and which has been extended to other districts, may be expected to yield some interesting results. The Council must here express their grateful sense of the facilities which have been afforded by the Census Commissioners for the examination of the enumerators' schedules deposited in their office, for the purpose of this inquiry; and their thanks are also due to the Rev. E. W. Edgell for the labour which he has bestowed on the examination of those schedules.

Among the direct fruits of the Society's exertions during the past year, has been the formation of a Statistical Society at Aberdeen, for the purpose of collecting and publishing the statistics of the north-eastern counties of Scotland, which was established on a most respectable and promising footing in December, after communications with the Council. Another important and direct result of its endeavours has been the institution of a statistical inquiry into the state of the town of Sheffield, by a Committee of the Town Council of that place, after the example of the Leeds inquiry, and at the suggestion of the Council. The Report of this Committee has been presented to the Society, and will be published as soon as the recent information obtained by the census shall have been inserted in it.

The Council has also been in communication with parties in Dublin upon the subject of forming a Statistical Society in that city; and they are much gratified in stating that the constitution of the Society has served as a model for the American Statistical Association, which has been established at Boston, United States. They must also here express their admiration of the step which the Belgian Government has taken, in appointing a Central Commission, to bring together, and give a stamp of unity and completeness to all the statistical information which can be furnished with regard to Belgium. The appointment of this Society's distinguished foreign member, M. Quetelet, as the President of the Commission, affords a guarantee for the fidelity, care, and intelligence with which the work will be executed.

The Journal has been conducted on the same footing throughout the past year, and continues to uphold its reputation. As evidence of this, the Council has much pleasure in stating that several articles which have appeared in it have been translated and printed in foreign publications; and that an application has been made to the Council by one of Her Majesty's ministers in a German Court, for copies of the Society's publications, to distribute to foreign gentlemen desirous of perusing them.

With accumulated experience, augmenting materials, and the steady increase of a sincere spirit of patient observation and inquiry, which is everywhere manifesting itself, the Council anticipate an uninterrupted course of useful prosperity to the Society, and the attainment of important results, towards which its modest efforts have made the surest, though not the most ostentatious, progress. For the continuance and the augmentation of these efforts, the Council are well aware that the best security is that spirit of investigation which animates the whole body of the Society, and is extinguishable only with the civilization of which it is one of the noblest features.

Receipts, Jan. 1, 1841. ABSTRACT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE from the 1st of January to the 31st December, 1841.

	£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
Receipts, Jan. 1, 1841. Balance in the hands of the Treasurer	52	14	7	Expenditure, Jan. 1, 1841. Rent	.	.	.
Transfer of Secretaries	.	.	.	Salaries	.	.	105 0 0
Balance of Sale of Proceedings	.	.	8 5 0	Housekeeping Expenses	.	.	205 0 0
Balance of Working Class Committee	.	.	0 10 0	Messrs. Clowes for Printing, 1840	.	.	53 5 7
Overcharge on Messrs. Knight's Bill	.	.	5 8 0	Ditto ditto Oct. 1841	.	.	257 18 0
Arrears of subscription	1 for 1836	.	£ 2 2 0	Salary of Editor of Journal	.	.	130 9 0
"	3 for 1837	.	6 6 0	Stationery	.	.	75 0 0
"	3 for 1838	.	6 6 0	Lithography	.	.	8 19 4
"	5 for 1839	.	10 10 0	Parcels and Postages	.	.	4 17 0
"	18 for 1840	.	37 16 0	Advertising	.	.	11 13 5
"	333 for 1841	.	63 0 0	Library	.	.	10 12 0
"	3 Compositions	.	699 6 0	Miscellaneous	.	.	27 4 10
"	Messrs. Knight for Sale of Journal 1840	.	63 0 0	Balance in the hands of the Treasurer	.	.	18 6 11
"	" October, 1841	.	77 10 0	Ditto ditto Secretary	.	.	72 8 0
"		.	12 6 6				73 14 0
			£982 0 1				£982 0 1
ASSETS, DECEMBER 31, 1841.				LIABILITIES OF THE SOCIETY, DEC. 31, 1841.			
Stock in the Reduced 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. £569 17 0 cost £567 0			0	Messrs. Clowes for Printing the Journal	.	.	110 0 0
Consols 3 per cent. 328 15 4 cost 300 0			9 40 14 0	" Miscellaneous Printing	.	.	22 15 0
Cash Balance	.	.	73 14	Mr. Clarke, for Stationery	.	.	2 7 7
			£982 0 1				£135 2 7
DUE TO THE SOCIETY.				Deferred Investment on three Compositions for 1841	.	.	63 0 0
Dividend on Stock	.	.	59 12 0				
From Messrs. Knight for Sale of Journal	.	.	50 16 0				
1 for 1837, 2 2 0							
3 for 1838, 6 6 0							
9 for 1839, 18 18 0			£172 4 0				
23 for 1840, 48 6 0							
46 for 1841, 96 12 0							
Deduct amount of those not likely to be paid, 105 0 0							
			67 4 0				
			£177 12 0				
Total due to the Society	.	.	46 0 0				
Contribution of £1 per annum on 46 Compositions	.	.					

Signed . . . { F. H. GOLDSMID, }
 { JOHN FINCH, }
 { JOSEPH A. DORIN. } Auditors.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.

Third Ordinary Meeting, Monday, 17th January, 1842.

THOMAS TOOKE, Esq., V. P. in the Chair.

The following gentlemen were duly admitted Fellows of the Society :—

Rev. Whitworth Russell.

W. Baly, Esq. M.D.

H. P. Davies, Esq.

Charles West, Esq. M.D.

The following distinguished foreigners were elected Foreign Members :—

Sir F. D'Ivernois.

M. Le Play.

The following gentlemen were elected :—

J. B. Heath, Esq.

J. Fosbrooke, Esq.

J. L. Merivale, Esq.

T. G. P. Neison, Esq.

George Kerr, Esq.

Rev. T. Byrth, D.D.

Butler Williams, Esq.

The following gentlemen were proposed as candidates for admission into the Society,

Thomas Guy, Esq. M.D.

W. B. Brent, Esq.

A paper was read on the State of Agriculture and Manufactures in the Two Sicilies, from a Report on the Progress of the Two Sicilies, by John Goodwin, Esq., Her Majesty's Consul for Sicily. (*See p. 47.*)*Fourth Ordinary Meeting, February 21st, 1842.*

The Right Hon. VISCOUNT SANDON, M.P., President, in the Chair.

The Right Hon. Lord Ashley, M.P., was admitted a Fellow of the Society.

The following gentlemen were elected :—

Thomas Guy, Esq. M.D.

W. B. Brent, Esq.

The following gentlemen were proposed as candidates for admission into the Society :—

Vernon Harcourt, Esq., M.P.

James Mitchell, Esq., LL.D.

Richard Valpy, Esq.

The following papers were read, "Abstract from a Register of Accidents occurring in the Coal Mines of the Chamber and Werneth Company, at Oldham, from the end of October, 1840, to the end of October, 1841." By Joseph Fletcher, Esq., Hon. Sec.*

"Statistics of the present depression of Trade at Bolton, showing the mode in which it affects the different classes of a manufacturing population." By H. Ashworth, Esq. (*See p. 74.*)*General Anniversary Meeting, March 15th, 1842.*

Sir CHARLES LEMON, Bart., M.P., V.P., in the chair.

The Report of the Council to the Society for 1841-2, with the auditor's report and balance sheet, were read and adopted, (*see p. 86.*)

* To appear in a future Number.

William H. Lloyd, Esq. and William Farr, Esq. were appointed scrutineers of the Ballot for the Council and Officers; and those gentlemen having declared the result of the votes, it was announced from the chair that the following noblemen and gentlemen were elected as the Council for 1842-3.

Council for 1842-43.

Charles Ansell, Esq., F.R.S.
 Lord Ashley, M.P.
 Sir John P. Boileau, Bart.
 Right Hon. Sturges Bourne, F.R.S.
 John Bowring, Esq., LL.D., M.P.
 John Clendinning, Esq., M.D., F.R.S.
 George Coode, Esq.
 Viscount Ebrington, M.P.
 Rev. Edgell Wyatt Edgell.
 William Farr, Esq.
 Joseph Fletcher, Esq.
 Francis H. Goldsmid, Esq.
 Woronzow Greig, Esq., F.R.S.
 Wm. Aug. Guy, Esq., M.D.
 Henry Hallam, Esq., F.R.S.
 James Heywood, Esq., F.R.S.

Leonard Horner, Esq., F.R.S.
 Marquis of Lansdowne, K.G., F.R.S.
 Sir Charles Lemon, Bart., M.P., F.R.S.
 Right Hon. Holt Mackenzie.
 J. R. Martin, Esq., M.D.
 Herman Merivale, Esq.
 G. R. Porter, Esq., F.R.S.
 Rawson W. Rawson, Esq.
 Henry Reeve, Esq.
 Viscount Sandon, M.P.
 Lieut.-Colonel Sykes, F.R.S.
 Thomas Tooke, Esq., F.R.S.
 Seymour Tremenhare, Esq.
 Major A. M. Tulloch.
 James Wilson, Esq.

The officers of the Society were then balloted for, and the scrutineers reported that the following noblemen and gentlemen were elected:—

Officers.

President.—Marquis of Lansdowne, K.G., F.R.S.
Treasurer.—G. R. Porter, Esq., F.R.S.
Honorary Secretaries. { J. Clendinning, Esq., M.D., F.R.S.
 Joseph Fletcher, Esq.
 Rawson W. Rawson, Esq.

The Thanks of the Society were voted to the Chairman, and the Meeting adjourned.

Fifth Ordinary Meeting, March 21st, 1842.

G. R. PORTER, Esq., F.R.S., Treasurer, in the Chair.

The following gentlemen were elected:—

Richard Valpy, Esq.
 James Mitchell, Esq., LL.D.
 G. G. Vernon Harcourt, Esq., M.P.

The following gentlemen were proposed as Candidates for admission into the Society:—

Andrew Martin, Esq. Theodore Compton, Esq.
 Thomas Irving, Esq. T. Marsh Nelson, Esq.

A paper was read "On the Commerce of Russia," compiled from official documents, by A. Stowaczynski, and translated by C. R. Weld, Esq.

A second paper was read "On the Prices and Fluctuations of Grain in Prussia and England," by Rawson W. Rawson, Esq., Hon. Sec. (*See p. 32.*)

MISCELLANEOUS.

Coal Mines.—It appears from the First Report of the Commissioners on the Employment of Children that on an average of a number of mines in different districts there are employed in Lancashire to 1,000 adult males, 86 adult females, 352 males and 79 females between 13 and 18 years of age, and 195 boys and 27 girls under 13. In Northumberland and North Durham females are not employed; but to 1,000 adult males there are 266 youths, and 186 boys, at the above ages. In East Lothian to 1,000 adult males there are 338 adult females, 332 males, and 296 females between 13 and 18, and 164 boys and 103 girls under 13. In Pembrokeshire to 1,000 adult males there are 424 adult females, 366 males and 119 females between 13 and 18, and 196 boys and 19 girls under 13 years of age.

Average Prices of Corn per Imperial Quarter in England and Wales, with the Rate of Duty on Foreign Wheat, during each week from 31st December, 1841, to 25th March, 1842; also of each Month, of the Quarters ended Christmas, 1841, and Lady Day, 1842, and of the year 1841, together with the Septennial Average for the year ending Christmas, 1841. (Continued from vol. iv., p. 359.)

Date.	Wheat.			Weekly Average.				
	Weekly Average.	Aggregate Average.	Duty on Foreign.	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Beans.	Peas.
Weeks ended	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
1841.								
Dec. 31 .	63 1	63 3	23 8	29 9	20 7	43 6	36 0	37 2
1842.								
Jan. 7 .	63 0	62 11	24 8	29 7	20 7	39 9	36 0	35 10
14 .	62 5	62 9	24 8	29 1	20 4	40 11	34 11	35 1
21 .	61 5	62 7	24 8	28 10	20 1	43 0	33 9	33 10
28 .	60 7	62 3	24 8	28 3	20 1	37 4	33 4	34 2
Feb. 4 .	60 6	61 10	25 8	28 5	20 1	36 1	33 4	33 11
11 .	59 11	61 4	25 8	28 2	20 4	36 0	32 9	33 9
18 .	60 0	60 10	26 8	28 5	19 8	37 1	32 5	33 11
25 .	60 10	60 7	26 8	28 6	19 8	31 10	31 10	33 1
Mar. 4 .	60 9	60 5	26 8	28 3	19 1	34 3	32 0	32 6
11 .	59 11	60 4	26 8	27 9	19 0	33 11	31 10	33 11
18 .	59 9	60 2	26 8	27 0	19 1	36 4	30 8	31 3
25 .	58 4	59 11	27 8	26 6	18 4	33 5	29 9	32 0
Months:—								
Dec. 1841 .	62 11	30 6	21 5	43 4	37 9	38 3
Jan. 1842 .	61 10	28 11	20 3	40 3	34 6	34 8
Feb. ,, .	60 3	28 4	19 11	35 3	32 7	33 8
Mar. ,, .	59 8	27 4	18 10	34 5	31 0	32 5
Quarters ended								
Christmas, 1841 .	63 9	31 7	21 10	40 7	39 2	39 2
Lady Day, 1842	60 4	28 0	19 6	36 4	32 6	33 3
Year 1841.	64 4	32 10	22 5	36 9	39 10	40 4
Septennial								
Average, 1841, per bushel .	7 3½	4 2	2 11½	4 5½	4 11	4 10½

An Account of the Quantities of Foreign and Colonial Wheat and Wheat-Flour Imported, Paid Duty, and Remaining in Warehouse, in each of the Months ending 5th January, February, and March, 1842, and in the Year 1841.—(Continued from vol. iv., p. 360.)

Months ended	WHEAT.			WHEAT-FLOUR.		
	Imported.	Paid Duty.	Remaining in Warehouse at the end of the Month.	Imported.	Paid Duty.	Remaining in Warehouse at the end of the Month.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
5th Jan. .	130,101	3,118	199,379	64,471	4,331	144,023
5th Feb. .	78,430	5,278	289,643	81,962	15,891	222,804
5th March .	179,167	3,925	461,979	171,037	4,572	380,441
Year 1841 .	2,783,602	2,674,808	257,972	Included	with W	heat.

Quarterly Average of the Weekly Liabilities and Assets of the Bank of England, in the Quarters ended 4th January, 1st February, and 1st March, 1842, and in the corresponding Quarters of the preceding Year.—(Continued from vol. iv., p. 360.)

Quarters ended	LIABILITIES.			ASSETS.		
	Circulation.	Deposits.	Total.	Securities.	Bullion.	Total.
1841.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
5th Jan. ...	16,112,000	7,049,000	23,161,000	22,362,000	3,557,000	25,919,000
2nd Feb. ...	16,230,000	7,365,000	23,595,000	22,595,000	3,816,000	26,411,000
2nd March..	16,372,000	7,567,000	23,939,000	22,725,000	4,076,000	26,801,000
1842.						
4th Jan.	16,632,000	7,948,000	24,580,000	22,680,000	4,779,000	27,459,000
1st Feb.	16,830,000	8,506,000	25,136,000	22,880,000	5,237,000	28,117,000
1st March..	16,769,000	8,954,000	25,723,000	23,099,000	5,687,000	28,786,000

Aggregate Amount of Notes circulated in the United Kingdom, distinguishing those of Private and Joint-Stock Banks, with the Amount of Bullion in the Bank of England, during the Four Weeks preceding the 11th December, 1841, 8th January, 5th February, and 5th March, 1842.—(Continued from vol. iv., p. 360.)

Description of Notes.	During Four Weeks preceding			
	11th Dec. 1841.	8th Jan. 1842.	5th Feb. 1842.	5th March. 1842.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
England—Bank of England .	16,292,000	16,223,000	17,402,000	16,894,000
Private Banks. .	5,718,211	5,478,189	5,532,524	5,299,455
Joint Stock Banks.	3,217,812	3,042,197	3,068,901	2,990,986
Scotland—Chartered Private & Joint Stock Banks }	3,448,660	3,070,075	2,922,882	2,811,109
Ireland—Bank of Ireland. .	3,303,275	3,205,875	3,279,075	3,188,750
Private and Joint Stock Banks . . }	2,581,713	2,515,677	2,534,039	2,407,625
Total . .	34,561,671	33,605,013	34,739,421	33,591,925
Bullion in the Bank of England	5,031,000	5,629,000	5,602,000	6,231,000

An Abstract of the Net Produce of the Revenue of Great Britain, in each of the Years and Quarters ended 5th January, 1841 and 1842.

Description.	Years ended 5th January			
	1841	1842	Increase.	Decrease.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
Customs	19,754,340	19,899,585	145,245	..
Excise	12,574,562	12,580,918	6,356	..
Stamps	6,735,902	6,709,446	..	26,456
Taxes	3,946,444	4,482,911	536,467	..
Post-Office	441,000	455,000	14,000	..
Crown Lands	167,500	162,000	..	5,500
Miscellaneous	78,116	97,738	19,622	..
Imprest and other Monies	445,338	354,128	..	91,210
Repayments of Advances.	603,198	510,769	..	92,429
Total Income . . .	44,746,400	45,252,495	721,690	215,595

Description.	Quarters ended 5th January			
	1841	1842	Increase.	Decrease.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
Customs	4,380,906	4,795,274	414,368	..
Excise	4,016,366	3,739,270	..	277,096
Stamps	1,596,646	1,618,517	21,871	..
Taxes	1,786,771	1,910,000	123,239	..
Post-Office	98,000	127,000	29,000	..
Crown Lands	40,000	49,000	9,000	..
Miscellaneous	12,437	15,052	2,615	..
Imprest and other Monies	32,546	26,187	..	6,359
Repayments of Advances.	123,948	145,859	21,911	..
Total Income	12,087,620	12,426,169	622,004	283,455

Total Increase on the Year, £506,095 : Total Increase on the Quarter, £338,549.

An Abstract of the Income and Charges of the Consolidated Fund, in each of the Quarters ended 5th January, 1841 and 1842.

INCOME.			CHARGE.		
Description.	Quarters ended 5th January		Description.	Quarters ended 5th January	
	1841	1842		1841	1842
	£.	£.		£.	£.
Customs	3,644,292	3,689,266	Permanent Debt . . .	8,177,234	8,242,705
Excise	4,037,696	3,763,046	Terminable Annuities .	679,460	669,955
Stamps	1,596,646	1,618,517	Interest on Exchequer	11,910	16,166
Taxes	1,786,771	1,910,010	Bills		
Post-Office	98,000	127,000	Sinking Fund
Crown Lands	40,000	49,000	Civil List	97,092	97,385
Miscellaneous	12,437	15,052	Other Charges	402,339	459,800
Imprest and other Monies	32,546	26,187	Charge for Advances . .	70,000	20,000
Repayments of Advances	123,948	145,859			
Total	11,372,336	11,343,937	Total Charge	9,437,965	9,536,005
Cash applied to pay off	..	50,000	The Surplus	1,934,371	1,857,929
Deficiency Bills	Total	11,372,336	11,393,937
Total	11,372,336	11,393,937			

An Analysis of Bankruptcies in England and Wales, shewing the Counties and Trades in which the same occurred, during each Month from December 1841 to February 1842, and during the Year 1841—(Continued from vol. iv., p. 362.)

COUNTIES.	December.	Total of 1841.	January.	February.	TRADES.	December.	Total of 1841.	January.	February.
Bedford	5	<i>Persons connected with Manufactures.</i>				
Berks . . .	1	10	2	1					
Bucks	5	..	1					
Cambridge	8	1	1					
Chester . . .	2	25	2	2					
Cornwall	2	1	..					
Cumberland	3	..	2					
Derby . . .	1	8					
Devon . . .	2	21	2	1					
Dorset	6	..	1					
Durham . . .	4	26	1	3					
Essex . . .	1	9	1	2					
Gloucester . . .	6	64	1	2					
Hants . . .	3	24	2	2					
Hereford . . .	1	10	1	..					
Hertford	10	1	1					
Huntingdon					
Kent . . .	3	32	1	2					
Lancaster . . .	23	229	12	14					
Leicester	14	1	..					
Lincoln . . .	1	19	..	2					
Middlesex . . .	44	326	30	32					
Monmouth	9	..	2					
Norfolk	13	1	3					
Northampton . . .	3	10	1	1					
Northumberland . . .	4	26	4	1					
Nottingham . . .	4	15	1	2					
Oxford	3	1	1					
Rutland					
Salop . . .	1	11	..	1					
Somerset . . .	3	27	..	2					
Stafford . . .	4	43	1	2					
Suffolk	14					
Surrey . . .	9	57	7	4					
Sussex . . .	3	11	3	5					
Warwick . . .	3	56	1	3					
Westmoreland	2					
Wilts	6	1	1					
Worcester . . .	5	26	..	1					
York . . .	10	134	13	7					
Wales . . .	5	35	4	4					
Total in 1841-42	146	1354	97	109					
,, 1840-41	147	1425	110	113					
					<i>Agriculture.</i>				
					Farmers	2	5	3	..
					Corn, Hay, and Hop Dealers, Millers . . .	3	43	2	8
					Cattle and Wool Dealers.	1	22	..	4
					Coaches and Horses. .	2	11	1	..
					Brewers, Maltsters, and Distillers	4	42	1	8
					<i>Other.</i>				
					Innkeepers, Victuallers, Wine and Spirit Merchants	14	144	10	12
					Merchants, Bankers, Warehousemen, Agents, Brokers, Shipowners, and Wholesale Dealers . .	33	245	22	20
					Tradesmen, Shopkeepers, and Retail Dealers . .	54	475	34	28
					Miscellaneous	2	51	..	2
					Total in 1841-42 .	146	1354	97	109

QUARTERLY JOURNAL
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Statistics of the Municipal Institutions of the English Towns. By
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Temple, Barrister-at-Law, Hon. Sec.

[*Read before the Statistical Society of London: Present, H. R. H. Prince Albert, Patron.*
June 20th, 1842.]

AMONG the "facts which illustrate the condition and prospects of Society," scarcely any can be more interesting than those of its municipal organization in local communities for the purposes of peace and justice, and for the performance of labours required for the common health and convenience. This organization intervenes between the domestic hearth and the central authority of the State; and, in Great Britain, undoubtedly nourishes that national love of a regulated freedom, which has its birth in the virtues of home, and its fullest life in a heartfelt attachment to the throne.

The Municipal Institutions of England, including Wales, in the widest sense of the term "Municipal," may be said to include all its existing organization for local government, whether into counties, hundreds, poor-law unions, parishes, or towns corporate. But the latter have, under great political vicissitudes, inherited so much the most vigorous municipal spirit, that a study of their recent and their present state, is, perhaps, the best introduction to a knowledge of the very intricate systems of local government, among which the whole country is divided. For such a study, the Reports of the Municipal Commissioners, published by Parliament in 1835, and to which a copious Analysis, from the hand of the writer, was subsequently added, combined with the statute then passed for remodelling the institutions of the principal corporate towns,* the Acts by which this statute has since been amended,† and several returns recently made to Parliament, afford valuable materials, which it is the purpose of the present analysis to render available.

The earliest form of association in the Anglo-Saxon towns, appears to have been the same which prevailed throughout England, and among the Teutonic races generally, namely, that of "*freo-borh*," or, in Anglo-Norman terms, "*frank-pledge*," whereby the freemen of each locality were bound together in small communities of equal number, (here called

* 5 & 6 Wm. IV., c. 76.

† 6 & 7 Wm. IV., cc. 103, 104; 1 Vict. cc. 78, 81.

"tithings,") which, again, were combined together in larger communities of equal numbers (here called "hundreds," or, "wapentakes,") and these, finally into shires and burghs, forming integral portions of a state. The conditions of their common bond were, truth to each other and to their Sovereign; the latter involving mutual responsibility to the State for their conduct; a principle which is still in active operation in the liability of a hundred to make good damage riotously committed within its limits. The leet court of the hundred, in which the whole free population appeared, was, perhaps, the earliest local court of justice and police; but in the largest cities, comprising several hundreds, which appear to have constituted the earliest "wards," the principal court appears to have been the popular assembly of the "burghmote," or "portmote," equal in authority with the shire-mote, and in London designated the "hus-ting," from its being very early held in the town-house, or "guildhall." The mode of accepting the statutes made by the Witan (or king's council), states Sir Francis Palgrave, and of carrying them into effect, depended upon the deliberations of the burghmoot, and the discretion of its members; and London was as much entitled to the name of a distinct state or community, as the Kentish Kingdom.* Of courts designated Burghmote or Portmote Courts, the Commissioners describe six to be still held; of Hundred Courts they mention twelve, of which six are in use; and of Borough Leet Courts 125, of which nearly the whole are in use.†

These original franchises of the Anglo-Saxon boroughs, being the common-law rights of the whole free population, appear to have been held under no express charters from the Sovereign; and for a long period after the Conquest, the internal government of the English boroughs was left to their ancient customs, and the modifications of these customs which each community voluntarily made; all the earliest charters of the Norman kings and great lords, merely giving or conferring as "privileges," which they had now, in great measure, really become, the very common-law rights of which these free communities had long been in the enjoyment. These charters, brief as they are, contain invaluable indications of what the usual "privileges" then were; and some, granted to the boroughs of the most Danish part of the country, contain a curious record of the Germanic origin of their institutions, in the permission to the burgesses to have their "*hans-hus*," or "hanse-house;" a designation for the hall of the common mercatory guild, similar to that which formed the germ of the institutions of the Hanse Towns. The Commissioners' Reports describe the common assemblies of five boroughs as still being called, "Guilds;" and the Guild Merchant is mentioned in 19 others, though in only five has it now any existence; in Bristol and in York, in the form of a corporation of merchant adventurers.‡

The royal boroughs, or boroughs of ancient demesne, which comprised, in the early Norman times, all the principal trading towns, and had the king, alone, for their lord, were the examples of municipal freedom specially cited by the charters of enfranchisement granted by the barons to the smaller and more remote towns, rising, perhaps, under the very

* Rise and Progress of the English Common Wealth, vol. i., p. 103.

† See Analysis, *passim*.

‡ Analysis, p. 120.

walls of their castles. Ninety-eight boroughs are stated in the Commissioners' Reports to claim a prescriptive origin for their institutions;* and no fewer than 49 different barons are mentioned in various of the Reports as giving charters to smaller boroughs at an early period.† The circumstances under which these baronial boroughs commonly came at length under the protection of the Crown, do not admit of present elucidation; but it may be noticed that a very curious section of our municipal history is presented by taking the existing or recent institutions of the English boroughs, from the smallest to the largest, in the order in which their growth ceased, or was stopped.

To hold their town at fee-farm, undisturbed by any officer whatever, so long as they paid their rent, was a chief item in these early contracts between the inhabitants and their lord, whether the king himself, or one of his great barons; and "they," says Madox, "were deemed townsmen, who had a settled dwelling in the town, who merchandized there, who were of the *hans*, or guild, who were in scot and lot with the townsmen, and who used and enjoyed the liberties and free customs of the town."‡ Sometimes special privileges were granted, but they were chiefly such as regarded the burgh communities in their external relations; and most frequently these earliest charters bear, that the burghesses to whom they are directed, shall either have all their ancient customs, or those of one of the principal cities of London, York, Winchester, &c., where the ancient freedoms had been best preserved, and were best known. Whether expressed, or understood in general terms, these charters secured to the grantees, among the primary privileges, that their town should be a free borough, *i. e.*, the inhabitants should be free from all servile duties; that the townsmen should have a free trade, and exemption from toll in every part of the king's dominions; that all the land within their limits should be the property of the community, such as was not already occupied by their tenements, forming common land, off which portions might be sold for building, &c., by the assent of the community, to their profit, and to the improvement of the town; that the townsmen should answer to the king for his *ferm* by their own mayor, bailiff, or other compeer, at the King's Exchequer; frequently that all profits arising from fines, amercements, &c., in the borough Courts should belong to the community for their common benefit, and towards the payment of their *ferm*; and that they should choose a mayor, bailiff, or portreeve, to be accepted by the Crown, to account at the Exchequer for the *ferm*, and to exercise the chief magisterial authority.

The charter of Henry I., son of the Conqueror, to the citizens of London, simply granted to them, with the sheriffwick of Middlesex, that they should not be impleaded without the walls, but only in their own popular court; that they should be exempt from *daneget*, from murder (or the compensation for murder where the homicide was not produced), and from being compelled to wage battle in their suits, which should, on the contrary, be determined by oaths; that no one, by any authority, should claim reception (*hospicium*) in the house of a citizen; that the citizens should be everywhere exempt from toll, and enjoy all their *sokes* and customs; that none should be amerced but in certain reason-

* Analysis, p. 510.

† Analysis, p. 104.

‡ *Firma Burgi*, p. 269.

able sums specified; that nothing should be pleaded by *miskennin* in the hustings or folksmote, or other pleas, in the city; that they should hold their *hustings* weekly on Monday, and have satisfaction of all bonds, &c.; that they should recover unjust tolls taken of citizens, by *naams*, or legal reprisal, on goods belonging to the inhabitants of the offending place; that they should recover all debts due to them by decision in their own courts, and that they should hunt in the Chiltern, and in Middlesex and Surrey, as their ancestors did. With the exception of such as are purely local, the liberties specified in the above charter form the basis of every early endowment of "privileges" granted to the English boroughs, whether by exemplification of the previous customs of the place itself, or by reference to those of some other borough.

From the Conquest to the reign of Henry VI. the royal charters scarcely ever interfere with the internal constitution of the boroughs; and although certain subtleties in relation to "bodies corporate" began in the latter reign to appear in the charters, it was not until the time of the Tudors that interference with their internal affairs on the part of the Crown became general. During this long interval the ancient leets, folkmotes, or common halls, held before the chief officers chosen by the inhabitants themselves, appear to have formed at first the sole common councils and courts of justice; but in process of time some of the larger of these petty municipal republics erected within themselves representative constitutions, more or less aristocratic according to the success of local parties. And the exigencies which occasioned the devising of such constitutions is well described by the Act of the "immense community" of the common hall of London, in the seventh of Richard II., when the common council was put on its present footing, to the effect that as in such great assemblies things had been done more by clamour than by reason, the aldermen, when they were established for the year, should assemble their respective wards, and charge them to choose four of the most sufficient persons that are in their ward to be of the common council for the year ensuing, provided that of the whole number no more than eight should be of one mystery. Sometimes, both in the city of London and elsewhere, the mysteries, or trade guilds, were made the basis of the municipal representation; and the mysteries, or companies of trades, in 31 boroughs, are mentioned in the Commissioners' Reports; from which also it appears that they have yet some existence in no fewer than 20.

Whatever may have been the corruptions to which these home-grown institutions were necessarily liable, or whatever the local means, which, had the burgesses been left to themselves, they might ultimately have found of remedying their defects, their decline as instruments of local government was made sure and irretrievable by the augmentation of the political importance of the towns, which subjected their institutions to the conflicts of national as well as local parties. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, in the reigns of the Tudors and Stuarts, the internal affairs of the boroughs were, whenever opportunity offered, rearranged in the minutest detail by new charters, the effects of which, in bringing their constitutions towards one model, in which the governing council should be self-elect, will be seen by reference to the following table of the recent governing charters. (See p. 102-3.) This *deterioration* as instruments of local government was not designed, but

merely incidental to operations upon the return of members to the House of Commons by the corporate towns, which was, in its origin, a municipal privilege.

But the predominance of the political character in the municipal authorities, and their alienation from large bodies of the inhabitants, although they retained the administration of justice, lost them to a great extent the public confidence as trustees for numerous measures of local improvement, to the execution of which no other body could otherwise have laid claim. About the period of the Revolution, therefore, some examples of earlier date began to be extensively followed, in the obtaining

TABLE I.—*Royal Charters and Local Acts mentioned in the Reports of the Corporation Commissioners as having been obtained by Municipal Boroughs.*

Reigns.	Charters.		Local Acts.	
	Boroughs obtaining Charters.	Charters obtained.	Boroughs obtaining Local Acts.	Local Acts obtained.
Edward the Confessor . . .	1	1
William the Conqueror . . .	1	1
William Rufus	2	2
Henry I.	9	9
Stephen	2	2
Henry II.	29	37
Richard I.	16	17
John	47
Henry III.	52	114
Edward I.	46	62
Edward II.	38	43
Edward III.	75	128	1	1
Richard II.	66	88	1	1
Henry IV.	50	60
Henry V.	35	42	1	1
Henry VI.	69	98	3	4
Edward IV.	59	74
Richard III.	19	22
Henry VII.	51	61	4	3
Henry VIII.	72	104	7	18
Edward VI.	75	84
Mary	27	28
Philip and Mary	40	42
Elizabeth	123	156	9	12
James I.	110
Charles I.	41	44
Cromwell	5	5
Charles II.	81	111	4	6
James II.	55
William and Mary	9	9	3	4
William III.	10	11	10	7
Anne	7	7	9	10
George I.	3	3	10	15
George II.	6	7	31	46
George III.	16	16	118	400
George IV.	6	7	81	154
William IV.	3	2	18	26
	1,356	1,497	310	708

local Acts of Parliament, which erected separate corporations of trustees, generally under the name of "Commissioners," in the same towns with the old corporations, to carry out whatever new measures of municipal administration were felt to be requisite; the old municipal corporation being frequently allowed to nominate a certain proportion of the Commissioners from their own number. The annexed tables (pp. 101, 2, 3) show, with an approach to numerical accuracy, somewhat of the course and tendencies of

TABLE II.—*Governing Charters which regulated the Constitutions of the English*

Reign in which granted.	I. Common Councils constituted by Self Election, on vacancies, for life.	II. Common Councils elected through intricate Processes vir- tually amounting to Self-Election, annually.	III. Common Councils into which Election was made solely by the Upper Class of each, on vacan- cies, for life.	IV. Common Councils into which Election was made solely by the Lower Class of each, on vacan- cies, for life.	V. Common Councils composed of the Upper Class alone of the whole Body Corporate, Self-Elect, on vacancies, for life.	VI. Common Councils into which Election was made by Freeman constituted solely by gift of the Common Council, on vacancies, for life.	VII. Common Councils composed of the whole Body Corporate of indefinite Number, Self-Elect, on vacancies, for life.
Prescriptive Customs	12	1	5
Edward III. . .	1	1
Henry VI. . .	1
Edward IV. . .	1
Richard III.	1
Henry VII. . .	1
Henry VIII. . .	1	..	1
Edward VI. . .	2	1
Mary . . .	3
Philip and Mary .	4	..	1
Elizabeth . . .	13	..	3	5
James I. . .	29	1	2	1
Charles I. . .	16	..	1	3
Charles II. . .	23	..	2	..	1	1	1
James II. . .	9
William and Mary	2	..	1
William III. . .	6
Anne . . .	3
George I. . .	3
George II. . .	2
George III. . .	4	..	1	1
George IV. . .	1	..	1
Municipal Corpora- tions governed by several Charters of various dates . .	13	1	2	1
Municipal Corpora- tions governed by Baronial Charters	1	..	1
Unknown, because of refusal by the Corporation to submit records . .	1
	143	2	14	5	2	3	15

this succession of charters and local acts. Fewer of the more ancient constitutions would have appeared in the second of them, had not the boroughs, at the Revolution, generally repudiated the charters recently granted to them, after a surrender of their liberties before writs of *quo warranto*. No fewer than 52 are stated by the Commissioners to have done this, while 12 are described as retaining the new charters granted on this occasion by Charles II. and James II.*

municipal Boroughs previous to the Corporation Act, 5 and 6 W. IV., c. 76.

was made, usually for life, by a Commonality of Freemen, more or less popular, from Nominees of the Common Council, in number double the vacancies to be supplied.	IX. Common Councils partly Self Elect and partly chosen by a Commonality of Freemen, more or less popular, on vacancies, for life.	X. Common Councils to which Election was made by a Commonality of Freemen, more or less popular, on vacancies, for life.	XI. Common Councils to which Election was made by a Commonality of Freemen, more or less popular, annually.	XII. Common Councils composed of the whole Body Corporate more or less popular.	XIII. Common Councils composed of the Lest Juries selected by the Chief Officers.	Total of Boroughs.
1	7	7	33
..	2
..	1	3
..	1
..	1
..	1
..	1	..	3
..	3
..	3
..	5
1	1	..	23
2	..	2	..	3	..	31
..	2	..	22
2	..	1	2	2	1	36
1	10
..	2	..	5
..	6
..	3
..	3
..	1	..	3
..	1	..	7
..	2
1	1	2	..	21
..	1	3	6
..	1
8	1	3	3	24	11	234

* Analysis, p. 540.

Out of the 178 boroughs included in the schedules of the Corporation Act, no fewer than 108 are enumerated in Schedule E, as comprising bodies of "trustees appointed under sundry Acts of Parliament for paving, lighting, cleansing, watching, regulating, supplying with water, and improving" the whole or certain parts of such boroughs; and these trustees, under the 75th clause of that Act, *may*, if it shall seem to them expedient, transfer their powers to the remodelled borough councils; but the instances of such transfer, if there have been any, are very few. And although the *ancient* municipal institutions of all these boroughs are now placed upon one uniform plan, this division of the functions of local government between the municipal councils and the special trusts continues, therefore, to exist in a majority of them.

The total number of places in England and Wales, possessing ancient chartered or customary municipal institutions, was found by the Commissioners to be 263; but of these, 11 are not comprised in the accompanying tables; a deficiency which is of no consequence to our view of these institutions as a system, and which arises merely from the refusal of 2* to submit to any investigation, from 4† being left unreported by the Commissioner who visited them, from 4‡ unimportant places reported by the same Commissioner having been described at a much later period than the rest, and in a method quite peculiar, and from the City of London having been reserved by the Commissioners for a subsequent report, with a view to separate legislation, to which, however, its affairs have not yet been subjected. Of the remaining 252 places, 18 have municipal bodies which emanate merely from the court leet of a manorial lord; leaving 234 which are comprised in the preceding and in all the subsequent tables. The accompanying (pp. 105—118) are lists of the whole 263 municipal boroughs, with the statistics of their recent and present constitutions, their population, their criminal and civil jurisdictions, and their parliamentary representation, in so far as this is connected with their old municipal franchises. Intermingled with the first 234, which are throughout subjected to analysis, are 8 others, brought in from the two supplemental lists to make complete the alphabetical catalogue of the 178 boroughs included under the Corporation Act of the 5th and 6th of Will. IV. c. 76.

The following lists form—

TABLE III.—*Enumeration of the Corporate Towns of England and Wales, showing the state of their Institutions previous and subsequent to the Corporation Act of 1835 (5 & 6 Wm. IV. c. 76).*

1st. *Municipal Boroughs.*

2nd. *Manorial Boroughs.*

3rd. *Boroughs unreported by the Commissioners, or separately reported.*

[The boroughs to whose names an asterisk [*] is attached are unaffected by the Corporation Act, and those whose names are included within parentheses [a] are brought into the first list, from the two others, merely to make the list of the re-modelled Corporations complete in one alphabetical arrangement.]

* New Romney and Corfe Castle.

† Colchester, Saffron Walden, Sudbury, and Great Yarmouth.

‡ Llanfyllin, Llanidloes, Nevin, and Pwllheli.

BOROUGHES.

Municipal Boroughs whose Institutions remain Unaltered.		Municipal Jurisdictions.		Freemen not Burgesses.		
No. of Boroughs.	Population within the old City or Borough.	No. of Boroughs.	Municipal Jurisdictions.	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
				No.	Freemen not Burgesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Burgesses, or Municipal Electors, in 1837
1	573	..	None

BUCKINGHAM	Bailiff and 12 capital burgesses.	1 Mary	3,610	11,436	3,500
BURY ST. EDMUNDS.	Alderman, 6 assistants, 12 capital burgesses, including the alderman, 24 burgesses of the common-council, and honorary freemen indefinite.	20 Chas.	11,436	11,436	3,500
CALNE	2 guild-stewards and burgesses indefinite.	Prescriptive	2,640	20,917	3,500
CAMBRIDGE	Mayor, bailiffs, 12 aldermen, 24 common-councilmen, and freemen indefinite.	7 Chas. I.	20,917	20,917	3,500
*CAMELFORD	Mayor, 9 capital burgesses, and free burgesses indefinite.	21 Chas. I.	597	597	3,500
CANTERBURY (COUNTY).	Mayor, 12 aldermen, 24 common-councilmen, and freemen indefinite.	1 Jas. I.	12,190	16,114	3,500
CARDIFF	2 bailiffs, 10 other aldermen, 12 chief burgesses, and freemen indefinite.	42 Eliz.	6,187	6,187	3,500
CARDIGAN	Mayor, 12 other common-councilmen, and burgesses indefinite.	None.	2,795	2,800	3,500

Existing Jurisdictions.			Freemen and Burghesses.		
Criminal Jurisdictions.		Civil Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1835.	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
Exclusive Sessions, Commission, and Mayors, (E.S.C.M.) Sessions, Commission, and Mayors, (S.C.M.) Commission and Mayors, (C.M.) Mayors, (M.)	Number of Magistrates, including the Mayor and late Mayor.	1. Actions, Real, Personal, and Mixed, to what amount, (R. P. M., £100.) 2. Actions Personal and Mixed, to what amount, (P. M., £200.) 3. Actions, Personal, to what amount, (P. £200.) 4. In Abeyance.	No.	Freemen not Burghesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Burghesses, or Municipal Electors, in 1837
W. All felonies not affecting life or member.	3	P. £20
M.	2	In abeyance
M.	2	In abeyance	1	3	289
Committing Magistrate.	1	None
C.M.	5	R.P.M. unlimited	1	151	676
Obsolete	..	In abeyance
Petty Sessions	4	None
E. All felonies not affecting life or member.	3	P. £2
C.M.	4	R.P.M. unlimited	1	9	434
E.S.C.M.	6	R.P.M. unlimited	1	363	395
S.C.M.	4	P. unlimited	1	..	463
	5	In abeyance	1	..	563
	18	P.M. unlimited	1	2,949	4,694

OUGHES.

pal ghs stitu- main- red.	Municipal Boroughs.			Freemen not Burgesses.		
	No. of Boroughs.	No. of Wards (if any) as arranged by the Revising Barristers	No. of Freemen, Real, Personal, and to what amount, (R. 1000.) Personal and Mixed, of amount, (P. M., 1000.) Personal, to what amount, (P. £300.) Alc. to what amount, (P. M., 1000.)	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
				No.	Freemen not Burgesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Burgesses, or Municipal Electors, in 1837
lation in the City or Borough.	1	5	unlimited	1	232	1,011

487	16 I.	Mayor, 5 other jurats, freemen indefinite.	*FORDWICH
3,750	312 I.	Mayor, 24 common-councilmen, freemen indefinite.	FOLKESTONE
2,216	361 I.	Mayor, 12 jurats, inchmen, lot inhabitants.	FLINT
3,982	69 I.	Mayor, 11 other jurats, freemen indefinite.	FAVERHAM
4,761	20 D.	Mayor, 7 aldermen, burgesses.	FALMOUTH
2,313	168* I.	Mayor, 10 principal and freeholders, 24 common-councilmen, and freemen indefinite.	REX
28,285	586 I.	Mayor, 8 aldermen, 24 common-councilmen, and the mayor and aldermen, freemen indefinite.	REX (COUNTY)

Modelled.	Existing Jurisdictions.			Freemen not Burgesses.		
	Criminal Jurisdictions.		Civil Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1865.	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
	1. Exclusive Sessions, Commission, and Mayors, (E.S.C.M.) 2. Sessions, Commissions, and Mayors, (S.C.M.) 3. Commission and Mayors, (C.M.) 4. Mayors, (M.)	Number of Magistrates, including the Mayor and late Mayor.		No.	Freemen not Burgesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Burgesses, or Municipal Electors, in 1837
786	C.M.	5	P. unlimited	1	90	345
523 (P.)	E.S.C.M.	8	R.P.M. unlimited	1	277	2,206
367 (P.)	S.C.M.	10	R.P.M. £40	1	3	323
301 (M.)	E.S.C.M.	5	R.P.M. unlimited
140 (P.)	C.M.	5	P.M. £40.	1	..	330
298 (P.)	E.S.C.M.	12	P. unlimited.	1	585	1,192
187 (M.)	C.M.	6	P. £10.	1	3	229
.	None.	..	None.
.	E. All Felonies.	5	In abeyance.
369 (P.)	M.	2	None.	1	323	637
191 (M.)	M.	2	P. unlimited.	1	55	305
76 (P.)	C.M.	6	R.P.M. £100.	1	54	386

al s itu- ain d. tion the ity	Existing Jurisdictions.		Freemen not Burghesses.	
	Number of Magistrates, including the Mayor and late Mayor.	Civil Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1888. 1. Actions, Real, Personal, and Mixed, to what amount, (R. P. M., £500.) 2. Actions, Personal and Mixed, to what amount, (P. M., £200.) 3. Actions, Personal, to what amount, (P. £200.) 4. In Abernace.	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.	
			No.	Freemen not Burghesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in Burghesses, or Municipal Electors, in

6	20 Jas. I..	2 bailiffs, 21 brethren, and freemen indefinite.	LIVERPOOL (COUNTY).	
4	1 Mary, chie	Bailiff and 24 other capital burghesses.	LEOMINSTER.	
38	41 Eliz.	indefinite. councilmen, and burghesses	LEICESTER.	
123	13 Chas. II.	Mayor, 24 aldermen (including mayor), 48 common- assistants.	LEADS.	
2	2 and 3 Ph	Mayor, 12 aldermen, and 24 men indefinite.	LANCERSTON.	
1	Gwydo de Bron, 130	Mayor, 8 aldermen and free- definite.	LANCASHIRE.	
1	14 Jas. I.	Portreeve, and burghesses in- burghesses.	LANCASHIRE.	
60	60 Geo. III.	Portreeve, 2 bailiffs and 9 other aldermen or capital bur- burghesses indefinite.	LANCASHIRE.	
36	36 Chas. II.	Mayor, 7 aldermen, 2 bailiffs, 12 capital burghesses, and 20 capital burghesses.	LANCASHIRE.	
		Mayor, 12 aldermen, and 20 capital burghesses.	LANCASHIRE.	

Modelled.	Existing Jurisdictions.			Freemen not Burgesses.		
	Criminal Jurisdictions.		Civil Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1835.	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
	1. Exclusive Sessions, Commission, and Mayors, (E.S.C.M.) 2. Sessions, Commissions, and Mayors, (S.C.M.) 3. Commission and Mayors, (C.M.) 4. Mayors, (M.)	Number of Magistrates, including the Mayor and late Mayor.		No.	Freemen not Burgesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Burgesses, or Municipal Electors, in 1837
			1. Actions, Real, Personal, and Mixed, to what amount, (R. P. M., £100.) 2. Actions, Personal and Mixed, to what amount, (P. M., £200.) 3. Actions, Personal, to what amount, (P. £200.) 4. In Abeyance.			
786	C.M.	5	P. unlimited	1	90	345
323 (P.)	E.S.C.M.	8	R.P.M. unlimited	1	277	2,206
367 (P.)	S.C.M.	10	R.P.M. £40	1	3	323
301 (M.)	E.S.C.M.	5	R.P.M. unlimited
140 (P.)	C.M.	5	P.M. £40.	1	..	330
198 (P.)	E.S.C.M.	12	P. unlimited.	1	585	1,192
187 (M.)	C.M.	6	P. £10.	1	3	229
.	None.	..	None.
.	E. All Felonies.	5	In abeyance.
169 (P.)	M.	2	None.	1	323	637
191 (M.)	M.	2	P. unlimited.	1	55	305
	C.M.	6	R.P.M. £100.	1	54	386

Judicial Jurisdictions.		Freemen not Burghesses.	
Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.	
Number of Magistrates, including the Mayor and late Mayor.	Civil Jurisdiction at the time of the Corporation Act, 1889.	No.	Burghesses, or Municipal Electors, in
	1. Actions, Real, Personal, and Mixed, to what amount, (R. P. M., £500.) 2. Actions, Personal and Mixed, to what amount, (P. M., £300.) 3. Actions, Personal, to what amount, (P. £300.) 4. In Abernethy.		
36 Chas. II.	Mayor, 12 aldermen, and 20 capital burgesses.		
60 Geo. III.	Mayor, 7 aldermen, 2 bailiffs, 12 capital burgesses, 12 common-councilmen, and burgesses indefinite.		
14 Jas. I.	Portreeve, 2 bailiffs and 9 other electors or capital burgesses.		
Gwydo de Bron, 130	Portreeve and burgesses indefinite.		
2 and 3 P and Mary	Mayor, 8 aldermen and free-men indefinite.		
13 Chas. I.	Mayor, 12 aldermen, and 24 assistants.		
41 Eliz. •	Mayor, 24 aldermen (including mayor), 48 common-councilmen, and burgesses indefinite.		
1 Mary, ch	Bailiff and 24 other capital burgesses.		
20 Jas. I. •	2 bailiffs, 21 brethren, and freemen indefinite.		

Municipal Limits and Jurisdiction Act, (M.) Municipal Limits and Jurisdiction Act, (P.)	Existing Jurisdictions.			Freemen not Burgesses.		
	Criminal Jurisdictions.		Civil Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1888.	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
	1. Exclusive Sessions, Commission, and Mayors, (E.S.C.M.) 2. Sessions, Commission, and Mayors, (S.C.M.) 3. Commission and Mayors, (C.M.) 4. Mayors, (M.)	Number of Magistrates, including the Mayor and late Mayor.		No.	Freemen not Burgesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Burgesses, or Municipal Electors, in 1837
186	Petty Sessions	2	In abeyance
523 (P.)	Petty Sessions	2	None	1
367 (P.)	M.	2	R.P.M. unlimited	1	8	342
	E.S.C.M.	5	In abeyance	1	42	208
301 (M.)	None	..	None
140 (P.)	E.S.C.M.	9	R.P.M. unlimited	1	245	1,263
198 (P.)	None	..	None	1
	C.M.	10	None
187 (M.)	E. Misdemeanors.	3	In abeyance
	None	..	None
169 (P.)	E.S.C.M.	18	R.P.M. unlimited	1	Perhaps 1,000	2,400
191 (M.)		7	R.P.M. unlimited

76 (P.)

send two of their number
R.P.M. £100. 1 54 386

AL BOROUGH

Municipal Boroughs whose Institutions remain Unaltered.		Actions.	Freemen not Burgesses.		
		if Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1835.	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
No. of Boroughs.	Population within the old City or Borough.	Actions, Real, Personal, and fixed, to what amount, (R. M., £100.) Actions, Personal and Mixed, to what amount, (P. M., £200.) Actions, Personal, to what amount, (P. £200.) in Abeyance.	No.	Freemen not Burgesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Burgesses, or Municipal Electors, in 1837
3	R.P.M. unlimited	1	251	1,349

NEWTON	Mayor and other burgesses definite.	68	15,351	Mayor, 2 bailiffs, aldermen and 48 common-councilmen, and burgesses indefinite.	56,272	70,000*	NORTHAMPTON (COUNTY).	Mayor, 7 aldermen (including Mayor), 18 senior and junior common-councilmen and burgesses indefinite.	1,508	1,302	4,400*	OSWESTRY	Mayor, 12 aldermen, and 14 common-councilmen, including the mayor, and burgesses indefinite.	1,508	1,302	4,400*	
NORTHAMPTON	Mayor, 2 bailiffs, aldermen and 48 common-councilmen, and burgesses indefinite.	56,272	70,000*	Mayor, 7 aldermen (including Mayor), 18 senior and junior common-councilmen and burgesses indefinite.	1,508	1,302	4,400*	OSWESTRY	Mayor, 12 aldermen, and 14 common-councilmen, including the mayor, and burgesses indefinite.	1,508	1,302	4,400*	OSWESTRY	Mayor, 12 aldermen, and 14 common-councilmen, including the mayor, and burgesses indefinite.	1,508	1,302	4,400*

Existing Jurisdictions.				Freemen not Burgesses.		
Criminal Jurisdictions.		Civil Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1835.		Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
1. Exclusive Sessions, Commission, and Mayors, (E.S.C.M.) 2. Sessions, Commission, and Mayors, (S.C.M.) 3. Commission and Mayors, (C.M.) 4. Mayors, (M.)	Number of Magistrates, including the Mayor and late Mayor.	1. Actions, Real, Personal, and Mixed, to what amount, (R. P. M., £100.) 2. Actions, Personal and Mixed, to what amount, (P. M., £300.) 3. Actions, Personal, to what amount, (P. £300.) 4. In Abeyance.	No.	Freemen not Burgesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Burgesses, or Municipal Electors, in 1837	
M.	2	R.P.M. unlimited	1	1	320	
M.	2	R.P.M. unlimited	1	6	303	
Petty Sessions	2	In abeyance	1	
M.	2	None	1	71	275	
M.	2	In abeyance	1	5	181	
E.S.C.M.	8	P. £200.	1	..	1,261	
S.C.M.	4	P. £13 6s. 8d.	
S.C.M.	5	P. £50.	1	602	533	
E.S.C.M.	13	R.P.M. unlimited	1	1,310	2,624	
C.M.	6	P.M. unlimited	1	3	526	
C.M.	4	In abeyance	1	14	550	
None	..	None	
	..	None.	

BOROUGHES.

Municipal Boroughs whose Institutions remain Unaltered.		Municipal Actions.		Freemen not Burgesses.	
Boroughs.	Population within the old City or Borough.	No. of Boroughs.	No. of W (if arrar by Rev Barra	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.	
				No.	Bur-gesses, or Muni-cipal Electors, in 1837
			all Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1835. Actions, Real, Personal, and mixed, to what amount, (R. & M., £100.) Actions, Personal and Mixed, to what amount, (P. M., £200.) Actions, Personal, to what amount, (P. £200.) Aberynance.		
..		1	R.P.M. unlimited	1	871 1,786

STAMFORD	Mayor, 12 other aldermen, 24 capital burgesses, and free-men indefinite.	5,837	7,0	Paris
*ST. CLAIR'S	3 portreeves, and burgesses indefinite.	1,083	1,0	Paris
ST. IVES	Mayor, 10 aldermen, or capital burgesses, and burgesses indefinite.	4,776	4,0	
STOCKPORT (merely normal).	Mayor, aldermen indefinite, and not exceeding 71 free-men, including the aldermen.	1,940	7,7	
STRAATROAD-UPON-AVON.	Mayor, 11 other aldermen, and 12 capital burgesses.	3,488	4,5	
[SUBURB]	Unreported	
SUNDERLAND.	12 freemen and 18 stallingers.	17,060	40,7	
STUTTON COLDWIELD.	Warden, 2 capital burgesses, and 23 aldermen.	3,684	3,6	Paris

ad.	Existing Jurisdictions.			Freemen not Burgesses.		
	Criminal Jurisdictions.		Civil Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1863.	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
	1. Exclusive Sessions, Commission, and Mayors, (E.S.C.M.) 2. Sessions, Commission, and Mayors, (S.C.M.) 3. Commission and Mayors, (C.M.) 4. Mayors, (M.)	Number of Magistrates, including the Mayor and late Mayor.		No.	Freemen not Burgesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Burgesses, or Municipal Electors, in 1837
M.)	S.C.M.	4
P.)	E.S.C.M.	5	P. unlimited	1	6	630*
	E. All felonies not affecting life or member.	3	P. unlimited
d.)	E.S.C.M.	5	R.P.M. unlimited	1	251	324
p.)	E.S.C.M.	8	P.M. unlimited	1	4	594
	E. All Felonies	10	In abeyance
f.)	M.	2	In abeyance	1	..	264
p.)	E.S.C.M.	9	R.P.M. unlimited	1	183	1,426
p.)	E.S.C.M.	10	P.M. unlimited	1	18	1,145
l.)	M.	2	P. £50.
l.)	M.	2	In abeyance
p.)	C.M.	5	In abeyance	1	415	775

ROUGHS.

Municipal Boroughs.	No. of Boroughs.	No. of Wards (if any) as arranged by the Revising Barristers	Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1835.	Freemen not Burgesses.		
				Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
			Actions, Real, Personal, and mixed, to what amount, (R. M. £100.) Actions, Personal and Mixed, to what amount, (P. M. £500.) Actions, Personal, to what amount, (P. £500.) In Abeyance.	No.	Freemen not Burgesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Burgesses, or Municipal Electors, in 1837
..	1	2	R.P.M. unlimited	1	23	702

Total 234			104,352	1,972,576	York (County).	
Portree and four burgesses, the 12 D. now not full			3,800+1.	26,260	Mayor, 12 aldermen, 2 sheriffs, 72 common-councilmen and freemen indefinite.	

elled. n mits a Act, cipal limits itary s, (P.)	Existing Jurisdictions.			Freemen not Burgesses.		
	Criminal Jurisdictions.		Civil Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1884.	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
	1. Exclusive Sessions, Commissioners, and Mayors, (E.S.C.M.) 2. Sessions Commis- sion, and Mayors, (S. C. M.) 3. Commission and Mayors, (C. M.) 4. Mayors, (M.)	Number of Magistrates including the Mayor and late Mayor.		Nq.	Freemen not Bur- gesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Bur- gesses, or Muni- cipal Electors, in 1837
4 (P.)	E.S.C.M.	15	In abeyance	1	2	1,200
	Petty Sessions	2	In abeyance	1
	E. All Felonies	13	R.P.M. unlimited
2 (P.)	E.S.C.M.	6	R.P.M. unlimited	1	12	817
1 (P.)	E.S.C.M.	5	P. £2.	1	..	515
7 (M.)	C.M.	4	None
	All felonies not affecting life or limb.	4	In abeyance
	Petty Sessions	7	R.P.M. unlimited	1
	E. Petty Sessions	3	None
0 (P.)	E.S.C.M.	9	R.P.M. unlimited	1	941	1,406
	None	..	None
	S.C.M.	12	..	1	785	1,200

L BOROUGH

Municipal Boroughs whose Institutions remain Unaltered.		Jurisdictions.	Freemen not Burgesses.		
No. of Boroughs.	Population, within the old City or Borough.	Civil Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1833.	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
		1. Actions, Real, Personal, and Mixed, to what amount, (R. P. M., £100.) 2. Actions, Personal and Mixed, to what amount, (P. M., £300.) 3. Actions, Personal, to what amount, (P. £300.) 4. In Abeyance.	No.	Freemen not Burgesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Burgesses, or Municipal Electors, in 1837
1	2,706	In abeyance

Existing Jurisdictions.			Freemen not Burgesses.		
Criminal Jurisdictions.		Civil Jurisdiction at the date of the Corporation Act, 1833.	Municipal Boroughs represented in Parliament.		
Exclusive Sessions, Commission, and Mayors, (E.S.C.M.) Sessions, Commission, and Mayors, (S.C.M.) Commission and Mayors, (C.M.) Mayors, (M.)	Number of Magistrates, including the Mayor and late Mayor.	1. Actions, Real, personal, and Mixed, to what amount, (R. P. M., £100.) 2. Actions, Personal and Mixed, to what amount, (P. M., £200.) 3. Actions, Personal, to what amount, (P. £300.) 4. In Abeyance.	No.	Freemen not Burgesses, though Parliamentary Electors, in 1837	Burgesses, or Municipal Electors, in 1837
..
..
..	1
..
..	1
..	1
..
..
..
..
..
..
..	3
..	16

orporation Act at once complete.

These lists presents the following results :—

	No.	Population.
Towns with remodelled municipalities, represented in Parliament	144	2,023,592
Towns with remodelled municipalities, <i>not</i> represented in Parliament	34	171,572
Total of towns whose municipal institutions are remodelled by the 5th and 6th Will. IV. c. 76	178	2,195,164
Towns of smaller size whose municipal institutions are unaffected by the 5th and 6th Will. IV. c. 76, but which <i>are</i> represented in Parliament	19	28,045
Towns of smaller size whose municipal institutions are unaffected by the 5th and 6th Will. IV. c. 76, and which <i>are not</i> represented in Parliament, though possessed of a complete municipal existence	65	98,001
City of London, whose municipal institutions are unaffected by the 5th and 6th Will. IV. c. 76, although, of course, it is represented in Parliament	1	122,395
Total of municipal towns whose institutions are unaffected by the Corporations Act	85	248,441
Total of ancient municipal towns	263	2,443,605
No. Population.		
Total of towns which are municipal and <i>not</i> parliamentary boroughs	99	269,573
Towns* which have recently obtained charters of incorporation under the 5th and 6th Will. IV. c. 76, giving them municipal institutions on the plan of that Act, and which are likewise represented in Parliament	5	472,285
Total of towns now possessing municipal institutions	268	2,915,890
Towns which have not municipal institutions of the character contemplated by the Corporation Act, although represented in Parliament :—		
England	43	627,379
Wales (chiefly petty contributory boroughs)	21	73,371
Metropolitan boroughs which are in like manner without corporate institutions, although represented in Parliament	64	760,750
Total of towns without municipal institutions though represented in Parliament	71	2,089,943
Total of towns represented in Parliament	169	4,736,260
Total of boroughs both municipal and parliamentary, or only the one or the other	339	5,005,833

The parliamentary representation is here referred to merely as the legal and recognised indication of the principal masses of our town population. As such, however, it does not pretend to be perfect, for there are a great number of market towns containing from 2000 to 6000 inhabitants, and some having nearer 10,000, which do not return members to Parliament, while many which are not so large possess the franchise.

* Birmingham, Manchester, Bolton, Devonport, and now, I believe, Sheffield.

But it will be gathered from the preceding statement that a municipal system, which, exclusive of the metropolis, comprises nearly three-fourths of the represented town population, with the addition of 269,573 not included in represented towns, is one which forms an important element in our institutions.

It will be seen that the population entered as that of the actual town and suburbs, as nearly as it can be estimated, frequently differs from that comprised within the old municipal borough, or even within the limits of the parliamentary borough under the Act to amend the representation, where these are adopted for the remodelled corporations. This fact, indeed, with the necessity of warding the larger boroughs on some definite plan, gave occasion for the appointment of the Municipal Boundary Commission, on the results of whose labours there has yet, however, been no legislation; and serious anomalies still exist with regard not only to the boundaries temporarily assumed by the Corporation Act, but also with regard to the wards assigned by the barristers appointed by the judges to revise the first registration of the new burgesses; since which the mayors have been the revising officers. The use of these wards is merely for the convenience of municipal elections. Eighty-nine boroughs, it will be seen, are thus divided into electoral districts, varying in number from 2 to 16, as follows:—

Wards.	Boroughs.	Wards.	Boroughs.
2	35	8	2
3	24	10	1
4	1	12	1
5	9	16	1
6	10		—
7	5		—
		Total . .	89

TABLE
I. Freedom obtained

	Municipal Boroughs per			
	No. of Boroughs.	Population.		No. of Freemen included Council
		City or Borough.	Town and Suburbs.	
1. Birth	2	2,302	2,302	42
2. Gift by self-election into the Common- Council	44	319,817	360,017	92
3. Gift by the Common Council, electing to a Commonalty of Freemen, or to limited classes not of the Council . .	35	187,251	203,222	2,71
4. Gift by a Leet Jury, summoned by the chief officer, and electing to a Commonalty of Freemen	8	32,541	32,346	1,37
5. Gift by the Freemen of the Trades' Companies, electing to a Common- alty of Freemen	1	3,890	4,093	217
6. Gift by self-election of the whole Body Corporate, unlimited in num- ber, or comprising classes in addition to those constituting the Common Council	21	69,776	81,454	1,14
	111	615,577	683,434	6,790

To show at a glance the great difference in the very basis of these institutions, between the old bodies corporate, and the municipal communities under the recent Act, the following tabular abstract has been made of the former modes of access to the freedom as compared with the present simple franchise, which is *by occupancy of a house, warehouse, counting-house or shop, and payment of rates for three years, combined with residence in the borough, or within seven miles of it.* The first portion of this table shows what the recent modes of access were in all the boroughs; the second separates from these the smaller boroughs in which these modes of access, and the whole municipal government, remain unaltered. With regard to the origin of this variety of claims, it may be observed, that, to the liberties granted to the townsmen and their heirs or successors, their sons and apprentices had necessarily, in early times, an inchoate right; and as their daughters or widows would not marry bondmen, if the community at large chose to admit their husbands by the claim of marriage only, custom would establish this right also. With regard to the right by purchase, it was obviously equitable that the burgesses, who had purchased the enjoyment of their liberties dearly, should not admit strangers to share in them and in their public property without paying a fine to the funds of the community. If the municipal body chose to admit a stranger without the payment of any fine, this was the right by gift; but all these claims, it is obvious, were anciently mere openings to the household and scot and lot franchise; for none but a freeman could claim to reside and trade in the town beyond a limited number of days, at least until the enactment of the staple laws in the reign of Edward III.; and residence at scot and lot was necessary to substantiate any claim to freedom whatever.

edom.

Personal Claim only.

335.		Municipal Boroughs whose Institutions remain Unaltered.				
Average No. of Freemen in each borough.	No. of Councilmen.	No. of Boroughs.	Population of City or Borough.	No. of Freemen, including Councillors.	Average No. of Freemen in each Borough.	No. of Councilmen.
213	67	2	2,302	427	213	67
21	920	16	27,685	283	18	283
77	799	11	14,580	527	48	222
172	249	5	4,844	899	179	58
217	217
54	1,083	6	6,007	231	38	231
61	3,335	40	55,418	2,367	59	861

TABLE IV.

II. Freedom obtained by

	Municipal Boroughs previous			
	No. of Boroughs	Population.		No. of Freemen, including Councillors.
		City or Borough.	Town and Suburbs.	
1. Birth and Marriage	2	3,767	3,852	280
2. Birth and Apprenticeship	4	26,820	41,253	2,715
3. Birth and Purchase	3	6,388	6,388	355
4. Birth and Gift by the Common Council or other select class	3	58,648	66,853	3,708
5. Birth and Gift by the whole Body Corporate	8	40,999	36,409	1,139
6. Apprenticeship and Purchase	2	30,944	30,586	3,500
7. Apprenticeship and Gift by the Common Council	1	1,538	1,538	61
8. Purchase and Gift by the Common Council	1	5,105	4,000	161
	24	174,209	190,879	11,919

III. Freedom obtained by

1. Birth, Marriage, and Purchase	1	487	287	16
2. Birth, Marriage, and Gift, by the Common Council	3	9,125	9,468	641
3. Birth and Apprenticeship, and Purchase	4	30,215	35,727	1,046
4. Birth, Apprenticeship, and Gift by the Common Council	19	328,258	386,842	20,997
5. Birth, Apprenticeship, and Gift by the whole Body Corporate	4	46,452	51,006	2,002
6. Birth, Purchase, and Gift by the Mayor	1	1,233	1,233	112
7. Apprenticeship, Purchase, and Gift by the Common Council	2	43,714	56,817	490
	34	459,484	541,380	23,304

IV. Freedom obtained by

1. Birth, Marriage, Apprenticeship, and Purchase	1	3,750	3,638	312
2. Birth, Marriage, Apprenticeship, and Gift by the Common Council or chief officers	2	9,617	10,790	662
3. Birth, Marriage, Apprenticeship, and Gift by the whole Body Corporate	3	42,638	53,481	700
4. Birth, Apprenticeship, Purchase, and Gift by the Common Council	25	333,342	391,363	28,608
5. Birth, Apprenticeship, Purchase, and Gift by the whole Body Corporate	3	46,815	45,526	1,958
	34	436,162	504,798	32,240

edom—continued.

o Personal Claims.

835.		Municipal Boroughs whose Institutions remain Unaltered.				
Average No. of Freemen in each Borough.	No. of Councilmen.	No. of Boroughs.	Population of City or Borough.	No. of Freemen, including Councillors.	Average No. of Freemen in each Borough.	No. of Councilmen.
140	24	2	3,767	280	140	24
679	106	1	5,000	393	393	24
118	47	1	975	27	27	20
1,236	65
142	1,139	4	3,550	224	56	224
1,750	64
61	12	1	1,538	61	61	12
161	16
830	1,473	9	14,830	985	109	304

ree Personal Claims.

16	16	1	487	16	16	16
214	97	1	1,435	75	75	24
261	914
1,105	564	2	2,106	509	254	32
500	1,187
112	29	1	1,233	112	112	29
245	41
744	2,848	5	5,261	712	142	101

ir Personal Claims.

312	36
331	48
233	112	1	1,097	50	50	24
1,144	891	3	3,339	513	171	33
653	1,958
948	3,045	4	4,436	563	141	57

TABLE IV.

V. Freedom obtained by

	Municipal Boroughs previous			
	No. of Boroughs.	Population.		No. of Freemen, including Councillors.
		City or Borough.	Town and Suburbs.	
1. Birth, Marriage, Apprenticeship, Purchase, and Gift by the Common Council	8	114,113	166,575	12,182
2. Birth, Marriage, Apprenticeship, Purchase, and Gift by the whole Body Corporate	1	4,225	4,048	366
3. Birth, Apprenticeship, Purchase, Gift by the Council Council, and as Woollen Manufactures	1	61,196	56,272	3,460
	10	179,534	226,895	16,008

VI. Freedom obtained only by Claims of

1. Household Inhabitancy	4	14,489	14,654	2,718
2. Scot and Lot Inhabitancy	7	30,219	30,252	4,439
3. Occupancy of a Burgage Tenement	1	1,620	3,714	142
4. Freehold of a Burgage Tenement	2	6,772	12,963	125
5. Freehold or Occupancy of a Burgage Tenement	1	5,213	5,213	56
6. Freehold of any Tenement	1	330	{ 330 village. }	24
7. Freehold of any Tenement jointly with Household Inhabitancy	1	8,777	8,100	280
	17	67,420	75,226	7,784

VII. Freedom obtained by both

1. Apprenticeship, Gift by the Common Council, (if also a 10 ^l . occupier,) and possession of a Freehold	1	9,955	9,800	646
2. Birth, Marriage, Apprenticeship, Purchase, Gift by the Common Council, and Possession of a Freehold	1	11,922	15,298	2,521
3. Birth, Marriage, Apprenticeship, Gift by the whole Body Corporate, and Purchase of a Frank Tenement	1	3,136	3,136	1,025
4. Birth and Apprenticeship to be a Freeman, tenure of a Burgage Tenement to be a Borough holder	1	15,177	15,300	115
	4	40,190	43,534	4,307
Total of Municipal Corporations	234	1,972,576	2,266,146	104,352

edom—continued.

Personal Claims.

835.		Municipal Boroughs whose Institutions remain Unaltered.				
Average No. of Freemen in each Borough.	No. of Councilmen.	No. of Boroughs.	Population of City or Borough.	No. of Freemen, including Councillors.	Average No. of Freemen in each Borough.	No. of Councilmen.
1,523	300	1	1,423	320	320	20
366	366
3,460	86
1,601	752	1	1,423	320	320	20

idence, Occupancy, Taxation, and Property.

679	1,299	3	10,627	1,888	629	1,263
634	341	1	1,302	200	200	20
142	13
62	84
56	25
24	12	1	330	24	24	12
280	10
458	1,784	5	12,259	2,112	422	1,295

Personal and Property Claims.

646	646
2,521	49
1,025	1,025
115	115
1,077	1,835
442	15,072	64	93,627	7,059	110	2,638

To continue this variety of claims in each town, in an age when the whole kingdom is enjoying the freedom which they formerly protected, was obviously unnecessary; and the Corporation Act, therefore, rejecting the forms, but returning to the spirit of an earlier age, not only throws open the franchise to the three years' scot and lot inhabitants, but rejects from the municipal franchise all who are not thus qualified, and consequently excludes by far the greater portion of the old freemen, who, however, had generally been for ages deprived of any share in municipal elections. At present, the "freemen" of the old municipal boroughs are thus, as such, wholly dissociated from the municipal institutions erected by the recent Act, as unworthy of a voice in them. But for the exercise of the parliamentary franchise, and for the enjoyment of the old common lands of the town, their existence is perpetuated as distinct corporations. For these purposes alone, the ancient claims by birth and servitude, wherever they existed, have been reserved by the Act to amend the representation, and by the Corporation Act, which latter, for the enjoyment of all claims to property, reserves also the right by marriage. The 107 represented boroughs in which there are "freemen" unqualified to be municipal electors, or "burgesses," are shown in the preceding enumeration tables, which gives a total of 26,191 "freemen" thus unqualified, though enjoying the parliamentary franchise. The privilege of exclusive trading recently maintained by the "freemen" in some of the old boroughs, as it still is in the city of London, was abolished by this statute, together with all exemptions from local tolls on the part of any person not already possessed of such a privilege. In the following 47 boroughs there appear however, to have existed, in 1835, claims on the part of the "freemen" to the exclusive enjoyment of certain public estates and endowments, which are reserved by the Corporation Act, though the excision of all title to the "freedom" by gift or purchase will rapidly terminate their corporate enjoyment in six of them.

TABLE V.—*Claims of "Freemen" to Property in every Borough affected by the Corporation Act.*

(In so far as Reported by the Commissioners.)

Boroughs.	Claims to Freedom in 1835.	No. of Freemen.	Rights of Property claimed by Freemen.
Alwrick. . .	Birth and apprenticeship.	393	Rights of common turbary and of quarry on Town Moor, and to exclusive education of children, both male and female, in free-schools.
Appleby. . .	Birth, gift, or purchase.	112	Some small advantages in regard to the grammar-school.
Axbridge. . .	Election by common council.	28	Small property and fees, averaging from 5s. to 10s. each per annum.
Bath. . .	Servitude, gift, or purchase.	124	Benefit from the Bath Common.
Bedford. . .	Birth, servitude, purchase, or gift.	About 160	Common right of small extent.

TABLE V.—*Claims of "Freemen" to Property*—continued.

Boroughs.	Claims to Freedom in 1835.	No. of Freemen.	Rights of Property claimed by Freemen.
Berwick. . .	Birth, apprenticeship, and gift.	1105	Education for their children.
Beverley . .	Birth, apprenticeship, and grant.	1476	Enjoyment by residents of extensive common rights.
Boston . . .	Birth, servitude, and purchase.	551	Benefit of loans from a very small sum bequeathed.
Cambridge . .	Birth, apprenticeship, purchase, and gift.	About 194	Some rights of common pasture; privilege of scalding a hog for 2d. and a boar for 12d.
Cardigan . .	Presentment of jury of burgesses at the mayor's court.	171	Pasturage on a common waste.
Clitheroe . .	Burgageholders.	56	Pasture on Preston Moor, worth to a few at most 3 <i>l.</i> per annum, but common going to be enclosed by corporation; pay less at grammar-school than non-freemen.
Coventry . .	Apprenticeship . .	Not stated.	Limited right of common pasture, and exclusive eligibility as objects of Sir Thomas White's charity.
Derby . . .	Birth, apprenticeship, & gift of corporation.	Not stated.	Common right without stint.
Doncaster . .	Birth, servitude, and grant.	228	Common right, with about 1 <i>l.</i> per annum to each; claim to have their children taught the classics at grammar-school.
Durham. . .	Birth, apprenticeship, and gift.	1200	Common lands producing about 9 <i>s.</i> a-year to each of 424 resident burgesses.
Exeter . . .	Birth, gift, servitude, and marriage.	586	Eligibility to be objects of some small charitable endowments.
Eye	Birth, apprenticeship, and election.	About 168	Limited rights of common pasture.
Gateshead . .	Borough-holders, birth, and servitude.	115	Limited profits from common lands.
Gloucester . .	Appointment, purchase, birth, and servitude.	725 resident.	Small common rights.
Godmanchester.	Birth and purchase .	About 158	Considerable rights of common.
Grantham . .	Birth, servitude, purchase, and gift.	926	Exclusive eligibility to a charity.
Haverfordwest .	Birth, servitude, and gift.	292	Right of common pasture.
Hereford . .	Birth, marriage, and apprenticeship.	110	Eligibility to benefits of certain charities.
Kingston-upon-Hull.	Birth, servitude, and grant.	2700	Cheaper education at grammar-school than others.
Lancaster . .	Birth, purchase, and gift.	4848	Right of common; 80 seniors a separate common, producing 4 <i>l.</i> per annum.
Lincoln . . .	Birth, servitude, purchase, and gift.	About 1200, resident 507	Exclusive right to depasture two commons, and right on two others jointly with inhabitant householders. Exclusive right to hold leases of city property, and of eligibility to be objects of certain charities.

TABLE V.—*Claims of "Freemen" to Property—continued.*

Boroughs.	Claims to Freedom in 1835.	No. of Freemen.	Rights of Property claimed by Freemen.
Llanelly. . .	Presentment by jury.	34	Share in proceeds of lands formerly common, about 6 <i>l.</i> each per annum. Burgesses admit no new ones so as to increase their own individual shares; and the corporation consequently expiring.
Maidstone . .	Birth, servitude, and purchase.	850	Privilege of having their children taught Latin and Greek at the grammar-school.
Maldon . . .	Birth, marriage, servitude, purchase, and gift.	About 3200	Exclusive right of fishing within the Borough.
Malmsbury . .	Birth and marriage .	281	Have allotments of certain common land, about one acre each.
Marlborough .	Election	15	Small shares in a piece of land.
Morpeth . . .	Election	217	Rights of common pasture, worth to residents 5 <i>l.</i> to 6 <i>l.</i> per annum each; and to have their children educated gratis.
Newcastle-under-Lyne.	Birth and servitude .	Not stated.	Right of pasture on 205 acres of common.
Newcastle-upon-Tyne.	Birth, servitude, and gift.	About 4000	Right of common pasture enjoyed by 308, worth about 10 <i>l.</i> a-year each; exclusive eligibility to assistance from certain charities.
Northampton .	Birth, marriage, servitude, purchase, and gift.	About 400	Common pasture on about 200 acres of land; exclusive eligibility to certain charities, and education for children in free grammar-school.
Norwich . . .	Birth, servitude, purchase, gift, and as woollen manufacturers.	About 3460	Nearly 8 <i>s.</i> a-year each from certain lands formerly common.
Nottingham . .	Birth, apprenticeship, purchase, and gift.	2880	A considerable right of pasture on lands around the town, and eligibility to "burgess parts" of certain land.
Oxford	Birth, apprenticeship, purchase, and gift.	1400 resident.	Common right over 439 acres; fishery in city streams.
Pembroke . . .	Birth, apprenticeship, and gift.	No register.	Very limited right of common.
Rochester . . .	Birth, servitude, purchase, and gift.	1000	Sole eligibility of children to education at free-school.
Shrewsbury . .	Birth, servitude, and grant.	Not stated.	Trifling money-payments in lieu of common rights.
Stamford . . .	Birth, servitude, purchase, and gift.	About 305	Right of common enjoyed by about 30.
Swansea . . .	Birth, marriage, servitude, and gift.	104, resident 62	12 senior burgesses 10 <i>l.</i> each per annum.
Tenby	Election	301	Very limited right of common.
Tewkesbury . .	Birth, servitude, and gift.	280	Petty share in rent of an after-math.
Worcester . . .	Birth, servitude, purchase, and gift.	2800	Limited right of common on 20 acres, and exclusive eligibility to almshouses.
York	Birth, apprenticeship, and gift.	3800	Pasturage over several pieces of waste.

The next Table (VI. p. 130, 131,) shows the results of the different modes of access to the franchise on the number enjoying it; formerly on the whole of the municipal boroughs, and now on the unaltered and the re-modelled municipalities respectively. They are classed according to the number enjoying the freedom, whether defined by charter, or left, as by the Corporation Act, indefinite. And not only is there a large increase in the number under the re-modelled institutions, but the substitution of the more substantial inhabitants, under the name of "burgesses," for the so-called "freemen," must also be borne in mind. The municipal registration of 1837, of which an imperfect abstract, relating only to the represented boroughs, appears in the last column, shows, too, an increase of about 16 per cent. on the first registration in 1835, which is the only one returned with sufficient completeness, to be used throughout these Tables. The total number of municipal electors in 1837, must, therefore, have exceeded 145,000, instead of being only 124,650, as in 1835.

But the change effected in the powers and privileges of the municipal commonalty by the recent Act, is still more complete than that in its constitution. The subjoined classification of the municipal councils in their former state, (p. 132, 133) which is the same in which the less important of them still remain, will show how little share the real community of each corporate town, or even the commonalties of "freemen" had or still have in their election; while, at present, in the re-modelled corporations, *the commonalty of three years' scot and lot householders elect the municipal councils in the simple manner hereafter described.*

In the remodelled municipalities, now universally designated "the Mayor, Aldermen, and Burgesses of such a borough," not only are the municipal electors required to be qualified by a three years' residence at scot and lot, but a principle of qualification by property, which had no existence in the old municipal system, is introduced in regard to the aldermen and councillors elected under the Corporation Act; who, in the larger boroughs, divided into four or more wards, must be elected from among the burgesses possessing at least 1000*l.* in property, or rated at 30*l.* annual value, and in the smaller boroughs, from those possessing at least 500*l.* in property, or rated at 15*l.* per annum. This principle is derived from the constitution of the Boards of Commissioners under Local Acts, in which it still more predominates.

The council of each remodelled municipality is composed, two-thirds of "Councillors," and one-third of "Aldermen;" the latter not differing at all in their functions from the former, but only in holding office twice as long. The councillors are elected by the burgesses at large from those of their own number, qualified as above described, for three years; one-third of the whole number elected by each borough, or by every ward in each borough, going out annually. The aldermen are elected by the council from its own number for six years, one-half of them going out every three years. In the whole 178 boroughs there are 1080 aldermen and 3240 councillors, making a total of 4320 members of these borough councils; the numbers in each borough varying from 12 to 48. The mayor is chosen annually by the council out of its own number, and is *ex officio* returning officer for the borough if it send members to Parliament, and a justice of the peace for the year of his office and the year following. The burgesses elect yearly, from their own number, two auditors of the accounts and two assessors for the

TABLE VI.—Bodies

I. BODIES CORPORATE OF						
	Municipal Boroughs previous to 1835.					
	No. of Boroughs.	No. of Councillors.	No. of Freemen, including Councillors.	Average No. of Freemen in each Borough.	Population.	
					City or Borough.	Town and Suburbs.
1. Not exceeding Ten	2	16	16	8	10,927	10,500
2. Above Ten and not exceeding Twenty	21	287	299	14	59,196	67,576
3. Above Twenty and not exceeding Thirty	20	466	497	25	106,121	138,305
4. Above Thirty and not exceeding Fifty	5	157	187	37	155,118	158,279
5. Above Fifty and not exceeding One hundred	3	141	182	61	16,110	24,635
6. Above One hundred and under One hundred and fifty	13	142	142	1,620	3,714
Total of Municipal Bodies Corporate, of Definite Number	52	1,070	1,323	25	349,092	403,009
II. BODIES CORPORATE, OF						
1. Above Ten and not exceeding Twenty	9	115	132	15	21,775	24,951
2. Above Twenty and not exceeding Fifty	33	733	1,137	34	92,831	88,822
3. Above Fifty and not exceeding One hundred	22	691	1,511	69	99,318	99,001
4. Above One hundred and not exceeding Two hundred	31	1,836	4,679	151	258,074	283,787
5. Above Two hundred and not exceeding Five hundred	38	1,917	12,645	333	228,098	246,211
6. Above Five hundred and not exceeding One thousand	16	3,078	11,836	740	172,461	201,338
7. Above One thousand and not exceeding Two thousand	11	4,768	14,736	1,340	118,930	125,308
8. Above Two thousand and not exceeding Three thousand	6	243	15,436	2,586	149,045	199,482
9. Above Three thousand and not exceeding Four thousand	6	301	21,260	3,543	194,357	203,026
10. Above Four thousand and under Seven thousand	4	190	19,657	4,914	275,726	364,790
Total of Municipal Bodies Corporate, of Indefinite Number where the present number is stated	176	13,872	103,029	585	1,601,215	1,836,710
11. Municipal Bodies Corporate of Indefinite number, where the present number is not stated	6	130	22,271	26,421
Total of Municipal Bodies Corporate, of Indefinite number	182	13,980	1,623,486	1,863,137
Total of Municipal Bodies Corporate, both of Definite and Indefinite number	234	15,072	1,972,578	2,266,146

elections; and refusal to serve the office of mayor, alderman, councillor, auditor, or assessor, when elected, subjects the party refusing to such fine, not exceeding 100*l.* in the case of the mayoralty, nor 50*l.* in the case of the other offices, as the council by bye-law shall impose. It will appear, from the abstract of accounts hereafter given, that the expenses of the Municipal Elections in 1841 amounted to 5,106*l.* 9*s.* 6*d.*; and that of the council's printing, advertising, stationery, &c., to 7,073*l.* 14*s.* 11½*d.*

In the council is vested the appointment, payment, and dismissal of the town-clerk, treasurer, and all other officers; including a sheriff, in the case of the 20 towns which are counties of themselves, and a coroner

*Corporate.***DEFINITE NUMBER.**

Municipal Boroughs whose Institutions remain Unaltered.					Municipal Boroughs whose Institutions have been Remodelled.				
No. of Boroughs.	No. of Councillors.	No. of Freemen, including Councillors.	Average No. of Freemen in each Borough.	Population of City or Borough.	No. of Boroughs.	No. of Councillors.	No. of Freemen, including Councillors.	Average No. of Freemen in each Borough.	Population of City or Borough.
11	150	150	14	15,056
6	106	123	25	11,696
1	33	33	33	2,007
..
..
17	289	306	18	28,759

INDEFINITE NUMBER.

3	48	48	16	2,616
17	330	551	32	17,116
8	227	524	65	9,001	1	24	82	82	1,940
8	367	1,245	156	9,925	31	504	5,146	166	96,714
9	115	3,135	348	17,777	70	1,224	22,633	323	247,205
..	43	1,048	29,703	691	447,538
1	1,250	1,250	1,250	7,500	21	832	29,378	1,399	480,680
..	9	496	20,887	2,321	408,356
..
..	3	192	16,821	5,607	412,731
46	2,337	6,753	146	63,935	178	4,320	124,650	700	2,195,164
1	12	933
1	12	933	178	4,320	124,650	700	2,195,164
64	2,638	7,059	..	93,627	178	4,320	124,650	700	2,195,164

in every borough having its own court of quarter-sessions. In the council, too, is vested the administration of all corporate property, the proceeds of which form a "Borough Fund," aided by fines and penalties for offences against the Corporation Act, and applicable to the payment of the salaries of the borough officers, the expenses of municipal elections, the costs of prosecuting, maintaining, and punishing offenders, the maintenance of the prisons and other corporate buildings; and, if there be a surplus after defraying these charges, to the public benefit of the inhabitants and the improvement of the borough. But if, on the

TABLE VII.—Common

	Municipal Boroughs		
	Number of Boroughs.	Number of Councillors.	Average Number of Councillors in each Borough.
1. Constituted by self-election on vacancies for life .	143	3,343	23
2. Elected through intricate processes virtually amounting to self-election annually	2	80	40
3. Into which election is made solely by the upper class of each on vacancies for life	14	483	34
4. Into which election is made solely by the lower class of each on vacancies for life	5	241	48
5. Composed of the upper class alone of the whole body corporate, self-elect on vacancies for life	2	17	8
6. Into which election is made by freemen constituted solely by gift of the Common Council on vacancies for life	3	51	17
7. Composed of the whole body corporate of indefinite number, self-elected on vacancies for life	15	976	65
8. Into the whole or part of which election is made, usually for life, by a commonalty of freemen, more or less popular, from nominees of the Common Council, in number double the vacancies to be supplied	7	172	25
9. Partly self-elect, and partly chosen by a commonalty, more or less popular, on vacancies for life	1	31	31
10. To which election is made by a commonalty of freemen, more or less popular, on vacancies for life	3	63	21
11. To which election is made by a commonalty of freemen, more or less popular, annually	3	117	39
12. Composed of the whole body corporate more or less popular	25	9,188	367
13. Composed of leet juries selected by chief officers .	11	310	28
	234	15,072	64

other hand, the borough fund be not sufficient for the purposes above enumerated, the council are empowered to levy a borough-rate within their borough, with the same authority that is possessed by justices of the peace assembled at general and quarter sessions in any county; the accounts being always open to the councillors, and annually audited by the auditors, and published to the rate-payers. All acts of the council are decided by a majority of those present, who must be one-third of the whole number of the council to form a *quorum*. The ordinary meetings are held quarterly, and the special meetings after due notice. The council may appoint committees, at discretion; and is specifically required to appoint a watch committee, to take charge of the police; of which committee three are a *quorum*. The council is likewise invested with all special trusts, which, in whole or in part, have heretofore devolved upon the corporations under Local Acts, or otherwise; with the exception of trusts for charitable uses, which, by a lapse of legislation in their regard, have been placed in the hands of trustees, appointed for their administration in each borough by the Lord Chancellor.

The objects of local governments, to which the institutions of the corporate towns are directed, may be classed as follows:—

Councils.

previous to 1835.			Municipal Boroughs whose Institutions remain unaltered.				
Number of Freemen including Councillors.	Population.		Number of Boroughs.	Number of Councillors.	Average Number of Councillors in each Borough.	Number of Freemen including Councillors.	Population of City or Borough.
	City or Borough.	Town and Suburbs.					
53,283	1,194,278	1,393,743	39	603	15	3,222	62,340
4,090	51,420	62,133
11,888	132,878	154,332	1	20	20	200	1,302
7,164	51,054	54,212	1	29	29	112	1,233
41	11,324	15,439
561	9,757	8,824	1	13	13	44	1,524
876	40,964	48,793	6	231	38	231	6,007
7,360	85,257	101,823	1	12	12	400	1,080
2,880	50,680	70,000
810	29,414	37,868
4,177	101,053	95,452
9,188	175,233	184,679	8	1,638	205	1,638	13,208
1,934	39,264	38,848	7	92	13	1,212	6,933
104,352	1,972,576	2,266,146	64	2,638	41	7,059	93,627

1. Administration of justice in local civil and criminal courts.
2. Direction of the police, and committal of offenders in summary punishment, or for trial at the higher courts.
3. Custody and superintendence of the prisons.
4. Administration of public property, and the levy of rates, when such property is not sufficient to meet the public expenses.
5. Economical superintendence over the public establishments generally, the appointment and dismissal of public servants, and the enactment of bye-laws.
6. Paving, lighting, cleansing, maintenance and improvement of thoroughfares and sewerage, and often the supply of water.
7. Maintenance of public buildings and works, such as the town hall, market-places, bridges, monuments, and walks.
8. Making and maintaining harbours, docks, and navigations.
9. Administration of special trusts for purposes of charity, where such trusts have been specially confided to municipal bodies.

In towns not corporate, the first five important classes of duties devolve upon the magistrates for the county, nominated by the Crown, and the remainder upon boards of trustees under local Acts, commonly *designated Commissioners*.

trates of the county, if it were formerly exclusive. In receiving a grant of quarter sessions, the council, however, must undertake to pay a certain salary to a recorder, appointed by the Crown for one or more boroughs, and who is a magistrate for the borough, and *the sole judge on the bench*. The borough magistrates are not required, like the county magistrates, to have a certain qualification by property. A clerk of the peace is appointed by the council, in boroughs which have their own court of quarter sessions, and a magistrates' clerk by the justices.

A return of all incorporated towns or boroughs to which commissions of the peace had been granted from the passing of the Act of the 5th and 6th of Will. IV., c. 76, to the 31st December, 1839, (Sess. 1840, No. 610,) together with one of all those which had obtained the privilege of a court of quarter sessions up to March 30, 1838, (Sess. 1838, No. 339,) enables us to place in juxtaposition with the former state of the borough criminal jurisdictions a summary of what must be very nearly their present state. The number of old boroughs which have received the new commissions of the peace appears from the former return to be no less than 139 out of the 178 included in the schedules of the Corporation Act, leaving only 39 whose sole magistrates are the locally elected mayor and late mayor. The total number of these borough magistrates appears to be 1229. The second return shows that no fewer than 79 of the larger boroughs have their own courts of quarter sessions, in place of the various courts of Oyer and Terminer, gaol delivery, general sessions, and quarter sessions, which many of them heretofore had, in addition to the courts of petty sessions, which are still universally held. Some of the smaller boroughs, with unaltered institutions, are seen to retain criminal jurisdictions of the most extensive character, with magistrates of local appointment. (See Table VIII., pp. 136, 137.)

The *civil* jurisdictions of the old corporations remain unaltered by the Corporation Act, except in a few minor particulars, chiefly required to carry out the purposes of that statute. The recorder (where there is now such an officer) has become judge of the civil court, where that office was not already occupied by a barrister of five years' standing; and elsewhere the officer of the borough, who has by charter or custom been the judge in the civil court, retains such office; the appointment to which, on occasion of vacancy, is vested in the town council. There was every variety, at the period of passing the Act, in the extent of the jurisdictions, which had no reference to the size of the place or its convenience for resort to other tribunals; and all these varieties are preserved as they appear in the annexed table, with this exception, that there may have been, under clause 118, a revival of some of the 69 borough courts of record, the right to hold which was in abeyance in 1835, at the passing of the Act; and that out of the 9 places having courts for personal actions for only 2*l.*, 10*l.*, and 13*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*, some may now have a jurisdiction extending to personal actions for 20*l.* under the same clause, provided they have a barrister of five years' standing in the office of judge. The council are required to appoint a registrar and other necessary officers of the civil court, the jurisdiction of which is to comprise all within the boundary adopted for municipal purposes by the statute. The alterations effected by the statute in either the extent of the jurisdiction, or the precincts within which it is exercised, are too unimportant to require Table IX., which describes the state of the civil courts (see

TABLE VIII.—*Criminal*

I. Criminal Jurisdictions of Municipal Corporations,

	Municipal Boroughs previous to 1835.					
	No. of Boroughs.	No. of Magistrates.	Average No. of Magistrates.	Councillors.	Freemen.	Population of City or Borough.
1. Extending to all Offences, inclusive of High Treason	1	20	20	64	1,550	21,363
2. Extending to all Felonies	41	424	10	6,165	39,936	533,071
3. Extending to all Felonies, except Murder and Manslaughter	1	13	13	37	37	123,393
4. Extending to all Felonies not affecting Life or Murder	59	349	6	2,912	31,058	635,237
5. Extending only to Misdemeanors	11	55	5	2,285	3,008	92,134
6. Extending (except for Commitments) only to the Offences punished at Petty Sessions, which are the sole Courts held	11	43	4	226	961	21,387
Total of Boroughs having exclusive Criminal Jurisdiction	124	904	7	11,689	76,550	1,426,585

II. Criminal Jurisdictions of Municipal Corporations.						
1. Extending to all Felonies	3	24	8	68	588	17,429
2. Extending to all Felonies not affecting Life or Limb	29	166	6	885	13,500	230,573
3. Extending only to Misdemeanors	2	8	4	38	374	27,277
4. Extending (except for Commitment) only to the Offenders punished at the Petty Sessions, which are the sole Courts held	33	100	3	930	6,988	127,587
5. Boroughs in which the Mayor and late Mayor are now the sole Magistrates
Total of Municipal Corporations, having only a concurrent Criminal Jurisdiction.	67	298	4	1,921	21,450	402,866

III. Criminal Jurisdictions of Municipal						
Total of Municipal Corporations, whose Criminal Jurisdiction is obsolete	4	105	899	8,299

IV. Municipal Corporations unendowed						
Total of Municipal Corporations, of whose exercise of any Criminal Jurisdiction there is no record.	39	1,357	5,453	134,826
Total of Municipal Corporations	234	15,072	104,352	1,973,576

p. 138), to be extended like the preceding, although the change has been complete in the internal constitution of the courts themselves, which now draw their whole life from the popular representative councils, or are under the presidency of the recorder appointed by the Crown. The state of disorder and inefficiency into which these courts had fallen previous to 1835 may be presumed no longer to exist.

The jurisdiction of these Courts remaining the same, it is probable that, although designated in the statute "Borough Courts of Record,"

*jurisdictions.***clusive of the County Magistrates.**

Municipal Boroughs whose institutions are unaltered.						Municipal Boroughs whose institutions have been remodelled.					
No. of Magistrates.	Average No. of Magistrates.	Councillors.	Freemen.	Population of City or Borough.		No. of Magistrates.	Average No. of Magistrates.	Councillors.	Freemen.	Population of City or Borough.	
..
4	33	8	1,390	1,390	9,602
..
8	27	3	121	788	12,380	64	543	8	1,984	74,077	1,378,912
3	12	4	56	409	4,722
7	31	4	102	588	9,342
22	103	5	1,673	3,265	35,046	64	543	8	1,984	74,077	1,378,912

ncurrent with the County Magistrates.

..
2	7	3	30	48	2,598	15	110	7	368	9,439	171,147
..
18	51	3	539	2,055	24,194	60	335	6	1,328	31,647	506,048
..	39	79	2	640	9,597	139,057
0	58	3	569	2,103	26,792	114	524	6	2,336	50,683	816,252

orporations, obsolete or in abeyance.

3	69	69	4,437
---	----	----	----	----	-------	----	----	----	----	----	----

th Criminal Jurisdiction.

3	331	1,622	26,352
4	162	..	2,638	7,059	93,627	178	1,067	..	4,320	124,760	2,195,164

they will retain popularly the old names by which they have heretofore been known in different boroughs; a statement of which will be found in p. 139.

The expenditure out of the borough funds of the 178 re-modelled corporations in 1841, under the head of "Administration of Justice, Prosecutions," &c., was 44,734*l.* 3*s.* 6 $\frac{3}{4}$ *d.*; but this, of course, does not represent the whole charge upon the public, which would include the fees paid to the various officers in each stage of the proceedings of the several courts.

TABLE IX.—Civil Jurisdictions.

I. Civil Jurisdictions of Municipal Corporations, in all kinds of Actions, "Real, Personal, and Mixed."							
	No. of Boroughs.	No. of Judges.	Average No. of Judges.	Councillors.	Freemen.	Population.	
						City or Borough.	Town and Suburbs.
1. Extending to Actions for any amount	53	242	5	7,523	43,128	662,194	745,471
2. Extending to Actions for 200 <i>l</i> . . .	1	3	3	21	182	3,976	3,980
3. Extending to Actions for 100 <i>l</i> . . .	2	11	5	54	88	8,999	11,669
4. Extending to Actions for 50 <i>l</i> . . .	1	3	3	11	11	2,800	2,800
Total of Municipal Corporations possessing Civil Jurisdiction in all kinds of Actions.	57	259	5	7,609	43,409	677,269	763,920
II. Civil Jurisdictions of Municipal Corporations, only in Actions "Personal and Mixed."							
1. Extending to Actions for any amount	7	99	13	290	12,063	168,630	214,953
2. Extending to Actions for 200 <i>l</i> . . .	1	15	15	42	48	11,436	11,436
3. Extending to Actions for 100 <i>l</i> . . .	1	62	62	37	369	7,268	9,047
4. Extending to Actions for 50 <i>l</i> . . .	2	16	8	43	345	8,234	9,163
5. Extending to Actions for 40 <i>l</i> . . .	2	21	10	34	19	8,324	9,440
Total of Municipal Corporations possessing Civil Jurisdiction only in Actions "Personal and Mixed." .	13	213	16	446	12,844	203,892	254,000
III. Civil Jurisdictions of Municipal Corporations, only in Actions Personal.							
1. Extending to Actions for any amount	20	79	4	762	19,152	362,608	426,521
2. Extending to Actions for 200 <i>l</i> . . .	1	13	13	12	12	9,557	9,400
3. Extending to Actions for 100 <i>l</i> . . .	3	42	14	63	150	17,966	15,783
4. Extending to Actions for 66 <i>l</i> . 13 <i>s</i> . 4 <i>d</i> . } (100 marks)	1	3	3	8	20	4,761	7,989
5. Extending to Actions for 60 <i>l</i> . . .	1	2	2	10	366	5,631	6,000
6. Extending to Actions for 50 <i>l</i> . . .	5	15	3	90	1,218	24,958	24,400
7. Extending to Actions for 40 <i>l</i> . . .	4	22	5	107	2,663	30,442	34,733
8. Extending to Actions for 20 <i>l</i> . . .	2	18	9	39	399	16,789	10,728
9. Extending to Actions for 13 <i>l</i> . 6 <i>s</i> . 8 <i>d</i> . } (20 marks)	1	1	1	25	25	5,959	8,459
10. Extending to Actions for 10 <i>l</i> . . .	3	17	6	85	334	23,341	23,454
11. Extending to Actions for only 2 <i>l</i> . .	5	23	5	118	383	13,575	15,887
Total of Municipal Corporations possessing Civil Jurisdiction only in Actions "Personal"	46	235	5	1,319	24,772	515,593	583,323
Total of Municipal Corporations in which Civil Jurisdiction is yet exercised	116	767	6	9,374	81,025	1,396,754	1,601,284
IV. Civil Jurisdictions of Municipal Corporations, Obsolete or in Abeyance.							
Total of Municipal Corporations whose Civil Jurisdiction is obsolete or in abeyance	69	4,001	14,751	261,056	295,348
V. Municipal Corporations unendowed with Civil Jurisdiction.							
Total of Municipal Corporations of whose exercise of any Civil Jurisdiction there is no record	49	1,697	8,576	314,766	369,513
Total of Municipal Corporations . .	234	15,072	104,352	1,372,576	1,626,146

Names by which Civil Courts are designated.

Names by which Borough Courts of Record are locally designated.	Number of Boroughs in which so designated.	Names by which Borough Courts of Record are locally designated.	Number of Boroughs in which so designated.
Bailiffs' Court. . . .	1	Mayor and Bailiffs' Court	2
Borough Court. . . .	4	Mayor and Sheriffs' Court	1
Boroughmote Court. . .	2	Much Court.	1
Cheney Court.	1	Passage Court.	2
Civil Court.	1	Pentice Court.	1
County Court.	13	Pleas Court.	18
Crownmote.	1	Portmote Court.	4
Fen Court.	1	Provost's Court.	1
Foreign Court.	2	Record Court.	131
Fortnight Court.	2	Requests' Court.	32
Guildhall Court.	2	Sheriffs' Court.	10
Hustings Court.	6	Town Court.	2
Intrinsical Court. . . .	1	Tolzey Court.	1
Mayor's Court.	11		

2. Police.

The police of the old corporate towns, previous to 1835, was in the most wretched condition; the corporations themselves having under their direction generally only the leet constables, or other temporary officers; and where there was any other police whatever, it was either a watch paid by subscription among the inhabitants, or a few men under a local Board of Commissioners, perhaps in avowed rivalry with the undisciplined constables of the corporation. But the Corporation Act requires of the council of each borough to nominate a watch committee, in which is vested the appointment and superintendence of so many police constables as may be necessary, with power to act anywhere within the borough, or within seven miles of it, and with the support, in case of necessity, of a body of special constables, yearly nominated by the magistrates. To the watch committee, all other police authorities within the borough are required to surrender their power and police accoutrements; and this committee is required to report the state of their police quarterly, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department; the council having power to make bye-laws for the prevention and suppression of all such nuisances as are not already punishable in a summary manner. The expenditure of the borough funds, under the head of "Police and Constables," in 1841, by the 178 remodelled corporations, was no less than 135,636*l.* 9*s.* 7*d.*, and to this sum should be added the coroners' charges, amounting to 6,110*l.* 5*s.* 8*d.*

3. Prisons.

There is a mere lock-up in every corporate town, and all the larger boroughs have their own prisons, for the permanent detention of criminal offenders, as well as for debtors. The council of a borough having its own Court of Quarter Sessions, if the borough prison be not sufficient, may contract with the county justices for the maintenance of the prisoners in the county gaol; or, with the consent of the Secretary of State, may make a similar contract with a neighbouring borough, and have its prisoners tried at the Sessions of that borough; a provision peculiarly requisite, considering the wretched state of many of the borough gaols in use at the time of this enactment. The expenditure out of the borough funds in 1841, under the head of "Maintenance of Gaols and of Prisoners," was 51,546*l.* 1*s.* 2½*d.*

4. *Finances.*

The following sheets present Abstracts of the Income and Expenditure, in 1840 and in 1841, of the 178 boroughs under the Corporation Act. These make a return annually to the Secretary of State, of the yearly accounts last audited; and the present abstracts are derived from the copies of their accounts last laid before Parliament (Session 1841, No. 233, and Sess. 1842, No. 302). The very few blanks which appear in the accounts for these years are supplied from those of preceding years, for the sake of totals approaching to accuracy.

Abstract of the Statements of Moneys received and expended on account of the 178 Boroughs in England and Wales, included in the Schedules of the Corporation Act, in the Years 1840 and 1841.

RECEIPTS—FROM WHAT SOURCES DERIVED:—

	1839-40.			1840-41.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Balance in hands of Treasurer, and at the Banker's	74,969	6	11	56,892	6	8½
Rent, and fines on grant and renewal of leases	249,234	7	6½	258,715	15	0½
Interest, dividends, and moneys repaid	109,198	16	7	73,805	8	11
Tolls and dues	167,171	1	2	182,685	9	5½
Sale of property	49,042	6	5½	84,822	5	5½
Borough and Gaol rates	150,743	17	1½	184,891	13	4½
Watching, lighting, and paving rates	45,929	16	1½			
Treasury, on account of prosecutions	11,005	14	4	12,313	13	3
Fines on convictions	6,686	13	3½	5,660	2	8½
Unclassed income	7,038	7	8	4,459	19	9
Miscellaneous	40,539	6	5	55,452	14	5½
Balance due to Treasurer	29,947	3	3½	32,670	0	0½
Total	£ 941,506	16	11½	952,369	9	2

EXPENDITURE—FOR WHAT PURPOSES:—

	1839-40.			1840-41.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Balance due to Treasurer	30,817	0	8½	24,163	13	4½
Administration of justice, prosecutions, &c.	41,875	4	6	44,734	3	6½
Police and constables	139,285	4	1½	135,636	9	7
Coroner	5,874	15	10	6,110	5	8
Gaol, maintenance, &c., of prisoners	51,079	14	6½	51,546	1	2½
County Expenses	18,036	15	3	12,656	6	5½
Rent, rates, taxes, and insurance	28,410	17	1½	20,866	16	2½
Salaries, pensions, and allowances to Municipal Officers	75,183	1	4½	80,757	11	5½
Lighting, paving, and cleansing	29,437	14	6	38,319	2	11½
Public works, repairs, &c.	166,983	3	8½	160,122	4	8
Markets and fairs, &c.	19,442	7	1½	11,650	16	7
Municipal elections	3,923	11	8	5,106	9	6
Printing, advertising, stationery, &c.	6,203	19	4	7,073	14	11½
Law Expenses	24,590	6	0	29,642	19	0½
Charities	14,918	2	10½	16,496	8	11½
Principal paid off and interest	198,052	9	5½	162,134	17	6
Miscellaneous	30,162	3	1½	42,282	16	0½
Balance in Treasurer's hands and at the Banker's	54,449	8	2½	93,652	4	7½
Total	£ 938,725	19	5½	942,953	2	4½

Column is not therefore a correct total of all the others. The sums are
 either it be in the items or in the totals that they occur.]

(14)

s tion.	Unclassed Income.			Miscellaneous.			Balance due to Treasurer.			TOTAL.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
0 0	956	2	9
0 6	94	5	4	1,461	16	2
9 6	4	13	2	936	17	1
7 6	11	5	0	501	6	3
5 6	6	6	1½	936	13	10
	43	6	1½	1,465	12	4½
	{ From Charities }			68	7	6	2,510	4	11
	{ 271 13 4 }			49	6	10	24,455	10	11½
2 11	1,351	16	1½
	2	14	8	2,483	16	6½
	2	9	9	971	0	8
	{ Tithes, &c. }			9,632	3	3
	{ 1,052 10 7 }			79	8	9	42	3	10	*2,561	14	9
1 5	723	11	7½
0 10	0	1	6	302	12	4
	45	15	3	169	4	2½
5 0	200	0	0	331	2	2	1,034	6	7
	5,405	12	8
	4	12	10	355	16	1
6 10	1	17	6	1,455	19	9½
	174	15	0½	7,675	6	0½
4 0	154	8	0	1,623	9	6
3 2½	{ Advowson }			4,093	3	10½	44,849	1	8½
	{ 1,312 16 2 }			77	14	5½	591	12	1½
0 0	19	4	6	798	12	7½	7,018	13	6½
5 6	5	3	4	394	4	3
9 3	34	15	0	106	4	9½	*5,946	12	4
	51	2	4	5,212	5	4
	2,400	11	1½
8 8	181	10	6	1,210	8	3	3,284	6	4
9 6	3	5	8½	1,580	8	4½
2 0	731	12	0	1,316	10	10
7 9	{ Police Account }			180	17	10½	774	3	8	10,201	2	11
	{ 1,331 6 0 }			0	0	9	327	7	10
0 0	9	11	6	1,507	16	10
7 6	118	12	8	64	18	2	334	3	10
2 6	1	10	0	396	9	4
	266	1	5½
7 6	144	4	9½
6 10	213	2	11	3,834	6	7
1 0	3	12	6	1,128	10	2½
0 8	68	0	9	413	16	4	9,847	14	0
	{ Tithes }			3	10	5½	*966	18	8
	{ 255 18 0 }			165	17	1
9 4½	4,224	4	1	6,457	7	10	4,030	6	6½	170,695	14	0½

nstitutions have been Remodelled, &c.—continued.

DERIVED.

ry, unt ions.	Fines on Conviction.			Unclassed Income.			Miscellaneous.			Balance due to Treasurer.			TOTAL.		
d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
11	1,089	9	4½	4,221	4	1	6,437	7	10	4,030	6	6½	170,695	14	0½
8	17	10	0	20	8	4	745	16	10
6	49	10	6	58	1	10	301	16	0	*17,125	10	0
6	5	6	9	2	2	6	850	17	7	2,002	1	7
	216	0	1½
	49	3	6	{ Races 1,775 6 6 }			376	15	6	2,085	14	1	12,794	18	6
	6	5	5½	696	11	8½
0	4	10	8	174	8	2	3,064	1	2
3	52	9	8	2	6	2	3,819	12	8
	0	8	0	11	0	10	86	16	7
	6	14	8	13	11	8	417	9	5
	21	10	6	11	6	8	425	18	4
11	11	14	5	455	9	10	19,568	11	11
	0	0	0½	301	0	0½
0	10	7	6	405	7	3
3	12	10	0	0	7	0	688	6	8½
	0	10	0	0	5	0	57	12	10½
9	*466	19	3½
	1	17	0	858	13	2
	143	6	5
7 10	27	2	11½	953	9	2	10,699	6	7½
	0	17	8	494	18	5
	*67	17	10
9	19	18	6	0	13	2	1,258	12	5
	6	10	6	231	1	2	2,641	17	4
	0	18	6	19	9	0	3,195	7	7½
4 3	1	0	0	3	12	7	37	10	11	1,811	13	11
	5	0	0	2	12	0	783	0	6½
9 10	11	13	9	5	7	8	1,985	9	4
	343	8	1	667	9	5½	*1,847	2	3½
	6	17	6	2,136	1	11
4 8	23	9	6	53	16	6	1,154	15	9½	4,777	7	1½
	6	9	0	667	14	2½
	11	0	6	13	4	0	2,238	5	1
	1	5	0	7	12	8	12	10½	10½
6 9	4	5	6	1,194	10	4	4,881	8	4
	5	4	8	2	5	6	990	15	9½
	1,401	4	0
	{ From Charities 103 10 0 }			111	14	10	8,914	4	8
8 2	256	7	0	42	11	1	*32,330	7	1
	13	0	7	3,055	11	5
	14	9	0	68	15	2	237	0	9	1,938	9	3
	2	12	9	193	0	0	59	9	4½	663	9	7½
1 8	464	7	1	534	9	7	19,509	14	5
5 5	88	6	3	{ Tithes 206 17 3 }			326	7	10	195	0	5½	*15,263	7	2
	573	15	6
	13	0	1	11	0	3	260	10	9	1,368	7	1
5 1	2,255	13	6½	6,309	17	10	9,159	17	7½	12,335	6	7½	360,838	4	6

D.

es on fiction.	Unclassed Income.	Miscellaneous	Balance due to Treasurer.	TOTAL.
s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
13 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	6,309 17 10	9,159 17 7 $\frac{1}{4}$	12,535 6 7 $\frac{3}{4}$	360,838 4 5
12 2	..	22 12 8	246 15 11	5,459 8 1
5 6	..	2 1 0	..	1,465 13 3
7 6	..	27,626 15 3	..	291,974 7 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
..	1 15 4	24 7 6
..	..	0 13 7	3 18 2	6 19 3
..	..	2 7 11	..	1,380 11 10 $\frac{1}{2}$
..	59 14 1	1,028 7 1
..	..	260 7 6	..	405 8 2
10 0	6 11 5	110 5 4
..	6,217 3 0
8 8	..	5 2 0	..	1,715 3 2
1 3	..	9 19 8	..	3,805 16 2
0 0	..	28 2 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 6 11	1,638 14 11 $\frac{1}{2}$
2 6	..	43 2 1	300 0 0	1,080 13 0 $\frac{1}{2}$
15 0	..	1 19 0	..	2,310 18 8
0 0	..	3 0 0	204 17 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,409 11 5 $\frac{1}{2}$
13 10	618 18 8
0 0	..	20 10 0	22 10 3	1,200 13 9
0 0	..	20 9 0	1 18 2	743 17 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
0 0	..	399 11 6	..	73,359 5 5
1 0	..	60 1 0	..	1,112 5 6
0 0	..	0 1 6	..	911 5 3 $\frac{1}{2}$
0 0	..	40 9 6	141 15 9	1,028 8 2
10 6	..	1 5 0	54 11 2	2,099 17 6
..	..	176 8 4	..	*4,622 19 5
..	..	72 18 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,811 11 4	*17,329 8 10 $\frac{1}{2}$
..	177 1 0	2,830 2 3
..	..	3 3 0	..	320 7 9
1 0	{ Fees, &c. }	60 7 4	17 9 7	2,674 4 11
..	{ 308 9 10 }	276 11 4
3 0	{ Borrowed }	0 2 0	13 4 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	691 18 7
15 8	{ 120 0 0 }	..	635 2 5	5,316 8 1
15 6	..	40 1 8	..	11,980 9 8
2 6	..	3 18 9	..	*674 10 5
..	..	51 10 0	..	2,051 11 7
13 1	..	10 7 3	..	4,654 18 8 $\frac{1}{2}$
..	..	155 16 4	4,819 9 9	9,199 1 10
5 0	5 8 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	129 11 10 $\frac{1}{2}$
..	..	11 14 9	..	3,764 18 8 $\frac{1}{2}$
..	2,450 3 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
13 7	..	117 6 11 $\frac{1}{2}$..	2,906 19 10
..	..	25 0 0	..	*838 8 0 $\frac{1}{2}$
1 0	..	11 6 1	11 10 8	4,416 11 1
5 0	196 17 11
9 3	..	8 5 0	..	147 4 11 $\frac{1}{2}$
..	20 0 5	515 7 8
6 0 $\frac{3}{4}$	6,738 7 8	38,456 12 13 $\frac{1}{2}$	21,095 18 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	839,995 0 2 $\frac{1}{2}$

stitutions have been Remodelled, &c.—continued.

t is.	Fines on Conviction.			Unclassed Income.			Miscellaneous.			Balance due to Treasurer.			Total.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
7	5,838	6	0½	6,738	7	8	38,456	12	12½	21,095	18	9½	839,995	0	2½
	1	19	0	0	0	6	194	18	9½	859	11	6½
	14	10	8	188	17	1
	7	10	6	51	19	7	19	4	5	*799	1	5½
6	28	15	5	1	11	2	2,033	11	1
	25	19	6	3,170	2	6
2	30	2	6	23	8	3½	208	10	8
0	56	2	6	2	17	0	763	5	2	1,903	10	8½
	4	15	9	5,622	3	0
	0	5	0	264	4	8	8	2	0	2,505	8	10½
2	23	11	6	29	0	0	7,220	1	8
	174	11	0	595	1	7
	2	0	0	1,880	1	7	2,292	13	3
	6	0	6	0	12	6	356	13	0	3,398	2	0
135	15	9	9	4	13	9	1,557	5	6
	4	10	0	32	12	3	2,193	19	6½
	0	5	8½	317	11	11
9	3	1	10	33	5	10	4,246	4	11
0	Borrowed	300	0	0	0	106	7	0	106	*3,460	13	5
	9	13	6	106	7	0	79	9	1	377	7	8
6	0	7	6	30	17	0	1,158	0	4½
	11	12	0	*534	14	5
	81	13	5½	1,306	0	2
	1	2	6	716	5	9
	0	1	0	705	5	1
	4	9	0	533	10	1	271	6	2½
8	2	12	0	279	17	11	290	0	6
	0	2	0	58	9	6	1,266	18	11
	189	7	0	438	19	0
	0	5	0	1,783	1	4
0	230	13	11	0	1	0	3,563	10	4	1,060	17	7
	15	9	0	15	18	0	625	1	10	1,088	17	11½
9	56	13	3	283	17	8	326	2	7
	3	12	6	120	16	9	179	11	0
0	43	6	6	41	0	5	524	4	11	4,228	14	8
0	9	9	1	516	12	0	0	18	0	3,149	0	7
5	2,245	14	7
	*1,838	18	4½
	8,259	18	2
	5,824	4	5
	6,527	19	2
	12,068	13	5
4	6,684	14	9½	7,038	7	8	40,539	6	5	29,947	3	3½	938,209	2	9

On ons.	Unclassed Income.	Miscellaneous.	Balance due to Treasurer.	TOTAL.
d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
	438 0 4
	..	116 1 1	..	1,460 0 7½
6	..	23 1 0	..	821 7 5
0	..	8 14 0	..	556 14 3
6	..	4 3 2½	..	795 0 5
0	..	2 17 0	..	901 9 6
0	..	49 18 9	..	1,171 18 3½
	..	13 5 0	..	1,952 2 9
6	..	102 9 11	..	21,784 12 4½
0	..	4 8 0	..	1,056 5 2½
	2,676 6 8½
	..	16 7 0	..	973 11 0
9	10,074 7 8
3	..	85 5 8	..	2,378 13 11
	1,046 3 6
0	339 11 2
0	35 0 0½	108 5 0½
	..	2 7 18	192 5 8	3,827 6 5
	..	50 2 3	..	5,412 19 4
	10 9 7	808 9 8
	..	517 17 11	..	1,187 5 8½
4	..	281 12 11	..	3,742 4 10½
	..	0 14 7	145 12 2	564 1 11
5	..	10,663 18 9	4,954 16 0	69,796 15 5
0	..	42 16 9	..	791 7 6
1	..	181 18 6	1,871 13 8½	*7,063 11 6½
	480 15 9
10	..	71 4 0	139 10 2½	6,719 0 4
6	..	51 11 8	..	7,138 5 4
	..	1 13 4	..	2,136 3 4½
9	..	232 5 9	1,039 0 1	4,110 2 1
3	..	700 0 0	126 6 2½	2,381 18 0½
	..	5 0 0	99 13 10½	630 3 8
2	..	228 11 3½	2,159 14 4½	9,929 19 5½
6	0 1 1	337 2 2
0	..	27 1 11	..	2,420 1 0
	139 16 11	283 3 11
0	118 17 0
	244 6 7
6	133 3 2½
10	..	10 0 0	..	5,099 11 2
0	..	1 5 0	..	*751 1 10½
10	..	2,084 1 9	..	10,647 8 11
	..	289 8 8	..	1,040 14 11
0	159 19 8
0	856 8 3
	43 16 10
6	..	15,870 3 4	10,913 19 11½	197,390 15 8½

stitutions have been Remodelled, &c.—continued.

DERIVED.

ry, nt of ions.	Fines on Conviction.			Unclassed Income.			Miscellaneous.			Balance due to Treasurer.			TOTAL.		
d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
2	1,276	11	6	15,870	3	4	10,913	19	11½	197,390	15	8½
11	9	9	6	30	13	10	145	6	8	6,288	9	9
0	1	15	5	3	10	0	729	19	10	1,967	12	5
	109	5	0	4,335	18	6	75	1	1	11,804	14	7
	{ Borrowed 1,000 0 0 }			0	15	0	50	1	8	1,521	12	9
6	2	2	0	3,129	19	10
	0	2	6	504	19	6
	511	6	2
	11	7	0	46	12	8	310	8	1
0	155	19	7	413	3	0	15,348	8	3
	18	12	3	355	5	5½
0	297	12	2½
7	3	11	6	10	0	0	868	17	10
	0	10	0	1	17	2½	44	18	0
8	0	6	10	533	0	3½
	23	10	7	848	19	4
	143	5	5
8	97	0	4	1,152	16	7½	7,487	7	6½
	39	8	3	145	11	2
	0	16	2	428	10	7
2	9	10	0	0	0	9	1,425	19	3
	18	14	5	10	11	6	437	2	2	2,387	6	7
	2	10	6	18	2	6	139	16	1½	2,366	13	11½
	1,748	10	7
	15	7	2	857	5	10½
9	11	14	11	22	12	9	2,027	2	5
	1	2	6	55	14	8	67	1	1½	1,248	6	3½
	1	19	0	935	6	3
0	11	14	6	184	15	3	1,569	11	2½	4,813	16	5½
	25	0	0	12	9	9	815	13	3½
	8	8	6	10	2	0	1,084	14	8
1	170	0	9	32	18	6	31,172	11	3
5	0	17	6	3	1	2	648	9	8½
6	164	13	6	1,229	7	5	6,152	0	2
	464	10	2½
	{ Borrowed 604 14 4 }			2	2	6	1,505	19	11½
	0	12	6	1,341	10	11
	500	0	0	118	4	2½	1,425	18	9½
	13	4	0	127	8	6	63	7	5½	1,833	15	8
	0	9	2	385	14	1	571	17	7½
3	320	19	10	1,297	1	7	22,105	14	0
6	103	1	8	89	5	8	10,306	1	4½
	552	6	4
8	8	19	6	172	17	5½	1,456	19	5½
4	32	9	5	16	2	4	5,138	7	8
	384	10	5½
	2,339	16	9	27,229	10	5	318,350	4	5
8	4,649	18	9	1,604	14	4	50,752	16	2½	17,184	0	0	673,153	8	6½

on.	Unclassed Income.	Miscellaneous.	Balance due to Treasurer.	TOTAL.
d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
9	1,604 14 4	50,752 16 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	17,184 0 0	673,153 8 6 $\frac{1}{2}$
0	..	18 10 0	..	49 2 0
	..	7 11 4	..	75 1 3 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ Borrowed 500 0 0 }	10 1 0	..	1,442 12 7 $\frac{1}{2}$
	136 1 1	2,006 7 4 $\frac{1}{2}$
	764 8 1
	..	219 0 10	..	54 10 0
0	..	45 6 7	..	7,754 4 9
9	..	15 6 1	..	4,081 8 6 $\frac{1}{2}$
6	..	71 10 0	70 13 7	1,411 1 7
	..	4 1 2	300 0 0	3,583 12 5
0	1,056 11 4	7 8 0	..	923 1 9
5	..	7 17 6	167 5 2	2,767 4 5
0	..	14 5 0	..	1,709 15 6 $\frac{1}{2}$
3	..	33 12 0	..	907 11 6
	..	14 17 9	..	1,333 7 10
0	..	180 0 0	3,276 9 8	808 6 0 $\frac{1}{2}$
0	..	76 17 10	..	64,103 15 2
0	36 4 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	750 8 10 $\frac{1}{2}$
6	..	54 11 3	280 9 3	662 9 7
0 $\frac{1}{4}$..	7 9 2	..	1,010 5 0
9	..	107 14 2 $\frac{1}{2}$..	5,501 16 5
	..	81 11 2	..	15,966 1 0 $\frac{1}{2}$
	..	11 6 0	..	15,773 0 0
	..	982 0 11	..	239 6 5
	..	0 6 0	..	3,221 11 7
	..	0 10 6	15 3 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	272 18 7 $\frac{1}{2}$
	725 15 0	364 17 8
2	..	8 14 4	..	4,421 5 11
0	12,594 6 3
	278 9 11
6	..	41 14 11	..	2,391 9 3
0	..	145 11 8	6,120 17 10	4,438 6 4 $\frac{1}{2}$
	5 8 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	10,841 2 3
	..	28 12 6	2 4 0 $\frac{1}{4}$	129 11 10 $\frac{1}{2}$
	..	136 19 9	..	2,409 5 2 $\frac{1}{2}$
	1,833 13 0 $\frac{1}{2}$
0	2,370 19 4 $\frac{1}{2}$
7	196 15 5
0	4,153 9 11
1	..	6 10 0	..	219 4 1
0	..	0 17 3	..	151 2 11
3	..	35 4 10	..	531 6 5 $\frac{1}{2}$
0	..	165 7 6	..	785 10 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
8	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	19 16 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	245 6 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,990 13 3
7	0	3 4 5	..	1,909 0 10 $\frac{1}{2}$
				2,901 1 10
1	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	3,161 5 8	53,302 5 11 $\frac{3}{4}$	28,580 16 0 $\frac{1}{2}$
				866,229 3 5 $\frac{1}{2}$

Institutions have been Remodelled, &c.—continued.

DERIVED.

on of ons.	Fines on Conviction.			Unclassed Income.			Miscellaneous.			Balance due to Treasurer.			TOTAL.		
d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
2	5,258	1	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,161	5	8	53,302	5	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	28,580	16	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	966,229	3	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
	5	2	6	42	4	3	177	17	2
10	55	14	10	37	17	2	2,449	15	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
4	44	0	0	2	13	8	131	18	6	6,001	13	10
	0	8	0	4,290	14	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
	7	15	0	282	19	9	7	18	2	1,223	16	2
1	17	6	11	2	15	0	516	18	3
	18	12	0	103	8	6	1,124	10	10	2,034	18	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
	998	14	1	9	4	0	3,849	11	10
	79	19	3	2,189	14	2
	{ Borrowed }			2,666	17	3
	167	16	9	300	0	0	615	18	10
	0	10	0	30	0	0	4,169	5	11
	78	3	11	6,001	7	8
	8	19	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	10	0	291	10	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
0	18	19	10	1,124	6	3
3	30	0	0	490	13	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
	10	12	7	1,207	14	10
7	23	9	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	30	16	0	2,113	3	0
	695	6	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
	0	9	0	30	0	0	241	2	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
	635	3	8
	0	7	6	1,259	17	3
	0	6	0	428	15	8
	129	16	10	1,282	14	5
	467	17	2	1,470	4	3
	0	5	0	350	6	0	1,309	16	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
	199	2	6
	165	16	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
	1,653	3	11	2,163	3	10
11	1	17	1	30	0	0	833	5	0	3,185	13	2
4	9	10	6	55	17	0	12	10	8	2,163	17	6
10	6	8	3	246	2	0	2,978	13	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
	15	1	0	46	9	1	2,737	15	10
9	21	8	0	38	0	4	5,778	1	1
9	55	13	10	5,817	10	8
5	21	10	6	237	3	7	13,003	14	2
3	5,660	2	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	4,439	19	9	55,452	14	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	32,670	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	953,161	9	5 $\frac{1}{2}$

0	250	0	0	..	2,928	12	5
0	9	18	7	..	0	13	0	2,495	15	2
0	18	10	8	1,013	6	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
0	195	9	3	..	250	13	0	30,140	15	3
0	36,578	8	11 $\frac{1}{2}$

OR WHAT PURPOSES.

nting, ring, nd nsing.	Public Works, Repairs, &c.			Miscellaneous.			Balance in Treasurers' hands, or at the Bankers'.			TOTAL.		
s. d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
0 0	213	3	6	44	13	2	131	9	0	956	2	9
3 8	71	16	7	40	10	4	169	4	1	1,461	16	2
	44	18	6	105	19	0	52	1	8	936	17	1
19 7	19	17	6	28	18	0	217	13	7	501	6	3
	8	18	6	4	17	4				936	13	10
2 0	115	16	3	37	4	4	3	10	6	2,465	12	4
	217	5	5	19	15	2	177	12	1	2,510	4	11
5 7	1,837	10	1	171	18	6	841	4	6	24,455	10	11
	613	10	0	11	10	7	284	14	8	1,351	16	1

TOTAL.			30,817 0 6			41,647 12 1			75,185 1 4			29,5		
York	381	12	8			47	6		1,043	2	6			
Yarmouth, Great	202	6	6			56	11		1,786	11	11			
Worcester						45	1		1,307	12	11			
Wichester						9	1		190	10	0			
Windsor						2	2		193	16	0			
Winchester						13	5		385	13	9			
Wigan	591	1	5			40	0		110	0	0			
Weymouth	3,693	7	5			3	11		211	5	0			
Wenlock						8	0		89	1	10			
Welshpool	88	4	2			3	0		48	3	0			
Wells						6	6		95	2	8			
Warwick						40	0		135	0	0			
Walsall						2	9		226	15	2			
Wallingford						5	4		64	10	0			
Wur						7	1		119	4	6			
Tonnes						6	6		66	8	6			
Torrington	3	10	6			0	3		76	14	6			
Tiverton	117	18	8			9	7		146	6	0			
Thetford	27	17	0			4	2		85	0	0			
Tewkesbury						6	5		73	7	8			
Tenbury						1	4		35	14	9			
Tamworth						8	3		192	8	0			
Tamworth						7	6		128	17	2			
Sunderland	411	5	11			2	1		526	5	4			
Sudbury						1	4		145	19	7			
Stratford-on-Avon	435	12	2			5	2		96	10	0			
Stockport	980	7	1			4	4		484	15	0			
Stockport	120	9	1			1	6		117	10	0			
Stamford						8	8		308	11	2			
Stafford						9	9		68	3	1			
Southwold						9	9		107	18	0			
Southwold	93	17	9			8	6		278	6	0			
Southampton	436	6	9			5	6		876	3	0			
Southampton						5	6		2,442	2	0			
Sunderland						8	3		2,442	2	0			

continued.

s.	Charities.			Principal paid, off and Interest, &c.			Miscellaneous.			Balance in Treasurers' hands, or at the Bankers'.			TOTAL.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
11	6,568	1	3½	69,182	12	2½	11,240	3	2	23,714	8	3½	343,501	2	4½
2	363	10	10	4,325	18	0	253	14	8	15,263	7	2
10	11	17	0	2	0	0	41	16	10½	140	10	4½	573	15	6
0	10	12	0	25	7	0	70	16	2½	*1,368	7	1
6	756	17	2	19	15	0	5,459	8	1
8	609	0	10	21	3	9	173	5	6½	1,465	13	8
2	4,026	6	11	81,918	18	7	10,436	4	11	11,500	17	10	291,974	7	1½
..	7	0	0	24	7	6
..	0	7	4½	6	19	3
11	349	8	0	35	14	11½	178	8	2½	1,380	11	10½
..	0	9	4	126	14	0	98	3	0	1,028	7	1
3	1	0	0	45	0	0	7	14	2	98	16	3	405	8	2
..	2	10	0	14	19	2	110	5	4
0	38	6	0	596	5	0	1,630	15	1	*6,217	3	0
6	765	0	0	19	12	2	545	3	8	*1,715	3	2
4	637	13	6	45	18	8	471	12	3	3,805	16	2
..	544	2	4	20	17	2	502	10	6	1,638	14	11½
6	101	5	0	57	11	8	16	7	2	1,080	13	0½
..	35	16	9½	22	0	10	2,310	18	8
5	60	0	8	112	0	10	17	11	3	*1,409	11	5½
0	101	0	0	61	9	11	67	19	3	648	18	8
..	33	1	0	1,200	13	9
..	5	19	6½	10	18	5	743	17	9½
1,280	16	0	0	9,087	7	0	1,124	13	7	32	7	0	73,359	5	5
..	3	8	9	147	3	5½	1,112	5	6
..	10	1	1	30	4	11½	*911	5	3½
2	6	5	5	168	10	0	0	0	10	1,028	8	2
6	277	18	8	26	11	7	*2,099	17	6
1	549	0	10	204	1	4	625	2	8	*4,622	19	5
0	250	7	6	784	17	0	640	12	6	4,291	13	6	17,329	8	10½
..	331	9	4	244	12	7	2,830	2	3
..	48	3	9	9	0	9	320	7	9
..	7	10	2	11	17	4	2,674	4	11
0	31	16	8	21	1	11	55	6	11	276	11	4
0	50	0	0	46	16	1½	691	18	7
..	65	0	0	529	9	6	283	15	6	5,316	8	1
155	9	3	3	4,194	9	5	23	18	9	11,980	9	8
..	5	9	1	135	12	0	674	10	5
0	337	10	0	27	7	9	361	6	2	2,051	11	7
..	15	0	0	24	3	4	119	0	9½	4,654	18	8½
2	686	16	10	38	10	7	9,199	1	10
..	56	14	0	6	4	2	129	11	10½
6	104	3	7	405	11	8	*3,764	18	8½
0	974	6	10	268	5	10	114	9	2½	2,480	3	9½
1	56	3	3	365	12	5	119	11	2	922	10	2½	2,906	19	10
3	565	12	6	17	15	10	21	17	8	*838	8	0½
3	1,129	14	4	66	5	8	4,416	11	1
..	37	10	0	17	0	1	22	1	11	196	17	11
..	19	4	1	26	14	8½	147	4	1½
1	189	6	0	25	3	0	20	16	7½	515	7	8
..	75	8	10	23	13	0	859	11	6½
..	40	0	0	3	10	9	53	1	2	188	17	1
1	41	15	10	231	16	9½	799	1	5½
10	271	8	8	105	9	7½	134	15	1	2,033	11	1
81	14	9	9	18	10	0	70	0	10	275	11	2	3,170	2	6
..	9	19	0	12	10	5	208	10	8

• WHAT PURPOSE

[illegible]

Birmingham	•	•	•	•	1,069	16	1		896	2	10	75	17	4	
Bolton	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	861	17	4	•	•	•	•
Donport	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	12	19	0	•
Manchester	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	3,788	7	8	62	3	8	•
Total	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	6,246	7	10	80	13	0	17

BOROUGH

[illegible]

d.	Charities.			Principal paid off, and Interest, &c.			Miscellaneous.			Balance in Treasurers' hands, and at Bankers'.			TOTAL.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
11	10,223	4	2½	120,953	1	1	32,430	13	10	76,188	19	1½	373,053	8	4
0	29	9	6	2	9	6	49	2	0
6	349	7	6	218	13	8	8	15	0	75	1	3½
11	0 9 4	212	6	6	225	4	11	234	2	4	1,442	12	7½
2	1 0 0	345	0	0	31	5	3	1 17 7½	2,006	7	4½
10	2 10 0	6	5	4	764	8	1
6	400 10 3	366	12	0	328	7	6	0 17 9	54	10	0
9	38 6 6	753	15	0	1	4	0	449	18	11	7,751	4	9
8	805	0	0	23	16	8	1,137	9	5½	4,081	8	6½
2	691	0	0	54	16	6	273	10	0	1,411	1	7
0	50	0	0	8	16	3	196	9	0	3,583	12	5
6	16 0 0	97	10	0	34	6	0	923	1	9
10	12 10 0	1,198	8	9	42	5	0	28	14	3½	980	13	9
8	63 11 7	57	1	8	217	15	10½	0 17 2½	2,767	4	5
1	16 5 0	101	0	0	21	8	11	1,709	15	6½
4	20	15	4	311	2	11	907	11	6
8	41	15	9	122	7	6½	1,333	7	10
1	3,143 0 11	12,923	13	5	1,007	18	1	16	18	3½	808	6	0½
4	30	0	0	67	4	5	67	18	3	64,103	15	2
8	15	9	10	29	12	4½	750	8	10½
1	16	8	0	20	19	11	662	9	7
4	207	10	3	202	11	8	1,010	5	0
8	691 6 6	400	17	6	1,153	5	40	5,501	16	5
5	165 14 8	2,440	13	0	543	19	3	3,247	14	1½	15,966	1	0½
2	15 11 2	11	15	3	760	4	9	15,773	0	0
6	5 0 0	29	0	0	5	6	8	239	6	5
8½	214	16	4½	19	10	7	223	17	11	3,221	11	7
8	70 7 6	534	10	3	73	17	1	11	16	9½	272	18	7½
1	118 8 8	3,518	3	9	66	13	0	364	17	8
4	3	8	0	16	0	0	2,778	17	2	4,421	5	11
4	46	3	11	23	4	11	31	7	11	278	9	11
6	15 0 0	11	13	11	73	8	1	2,391	9	3
5	753	0	2	104	8	9	40	2	7½	4,438	6	4½
4	56	14	0	6	4	2	10,841	2	3
0	78	15	7	129	11	10½
10	17 11 4	416	15	1	357	12	6	5 12 2½	2,409	5	2½
0	18	10	2	1,833	13	0½
9	492	4	4	79	5	9	74	7	6½	2,370	19	4½
5	37	10	0	27	6	7	7	6	5½	196	15	5
4	4 0 0	162	14	9½	3	6	7½	183	3	8	4,153	9	11
11	35	3	10	6	18	0	12	12	7	219	4	1
6	38 15 1	168	14	2	95	17	8½	14	13	8½	151	2	11
10	120	6	11	531	6	5½
0	2	17	0	3 15 5	785	10	9½
9	104 5 10	11	8	0	66	15	6½	1,990	13	3
5	120	6	11	1,909	0	10½
4	38 15 1	16	13	0	2	17	0	800	16	6	2,901	1	10
6	167	10	3½	177	17	2
11	46 7 0	7	16	0	112	8	1	20	19	4	2,449	15	3½
10	262 9 4	677	5	0	2,740	0	3½	6,001	13	10
3	5 0 0	113	19	6	77	3	6	438	13	9½	4,290	14	11½
0	40 6 0	287	10	0	17	16	9	1,223	16	2
8	239	0	0	57	6	0½	44	6	2	516	18	3
1	64	0	8	102	10	0	193	6	0½	2,034	18	2½
100	15 0	302	1	0	45	7	0	3,849	11	10
415	16 8	773	15	11	96	5	7	555	1	6	2,189	14	2
	433	4	5	2,666	17	3

A discrepancy will be observed between the totals on p. 140, and the totals of the totals in Table X. itself, arising from the apparent errors in bringing out the totals of the income and expenditure of each borough in the latter; errors which appear in the Parliamentary papers from which these accounts are abstracted, and which we have no means of correcting, as it is quite uncertain whether the wrong entries be in the items or in the totals. These errors, however, are not of such importance as to conceal in any mentionable degree the greatness of the revenues possessed by these corporations, or the application which is made of them. But the incumbrances upon these revenues amount to a small "national debt."

TABLE XI.—Amount of Debt due on the 1st day of January, 1840, by any of the Municipal Corporations named in Schedule A. of the Corporation Act, 5 and 6 Wm. IV., c. 76, as those to which a Commission of the Peace was to be granted: from the Return No. 70, Sess. 1841.

Corporations.	Amount of Debt.			Corporations.	Amount of Debt.		
	£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
Andover	3,000	0	0	Brought forward	1,556,723	16	0½
Barnstaple	4,209	18	0	Macclesfield	16,750	0	0
Bath	70,561	5	0	Maidstone	12,500	0	0
Berwick-upon-Tweed	44,803	0	0	Maldon	1,000	0	0
Beverley	1,000	0	0	Neath	2,100	0	0
Boston	21,236	13	0	Newcastle-under-Lyme	300	0	0
Brecon	750	0	0	Newcastle-upon-Tyne	20,000	0	0
Bridgewater	5,000	0	0	Newport (Isle of	3,000	0	0
Bristol	26,972	0	5½	Wight).			
Canterbury	3,000	0	0	Northampton	4,000	0	0
Cardiff	2,840	0	0	Nottingham	20,550	0	0
Carlisle	4,000	0	0	Oxford	3,950	0	0
Carmarthen	1,357	0	0	Pembroke (perhaps).	200	0	0
Chester	19,505	0	0	Penzance	9,900	0	0
Chichester	3,234	0	0	Plymouth	36,234	12	10
Colchester	10,000	0	0	Preston	15,306	16	8
Congleton	5,180	0	0	Richmond (Yorkshire)	2,000	0	0
Coventry	5,566	10	0	Ripon	550	0	0
Devizes	1,500	0	0	Rochester (an annuity	7,225	0	0
Doncaster	4,825	0	0	of £425, worth			
Dover	1,500	0	0	about).	750	0	0
Evesham	30	0	0	Romsey			
Exeter	130,400	0	0	St. Ives	800	0	0
Gravesend	3,000	0	0	Sarum, New	2,720	0	0
Grimsby	2,400	0	0	Scarborough	530	0	0
Guildford	2,200	0	0	Southampton	1,750	0	0
Harwich	2,300	0	0	Stafford	5,313	10	0
Haverfordwest	3,000	0	0	Stamford	1,400	0	0
Ipswich	15,000	0	0	Stockton	7,200	0	0
Kendal	5,770	0	0	Sudbury	700	0	0
Kidderminster	9,555	0	0	Swansea	510	0	0
King's Lynn	5,000	0	0	Tewkesbury	1,217	8	4
Kingston-upon-Hull.	23,320	0	0	Tiverton	300	0	0
Lancaster	2,114	19	7	Truro	846	0	0
Leicester	10,000	0	0	Walsall	1,043	6	9
Lincoln	14,202	10	0	Welch Pool	1,000	0	0
Liskeard	1,200	0	0	Wells	1,700	0	0
Liverpool	1,075,441	0	0	Weymouth	1,800	0	0
Louth	2,750	0	0	Wisbech	10,886	10	0
Ludlow	9,000	0	0	Worcester	3,500	0	0
				York	11,712	0	0
Carried forward	1,556,723	16	0½	Total	1,767,969	0	7½

TABLE XII.—Amount of Debt due at the commencement of 1835 by any of the Municipal Corporations named in Schedule B of the Corporation Act, 5 and 6 Wm. IV., c. 76, as those to which a Commission of the Peace was not to be granted: derived from the Commissioners' Reports.

Boroughs.	£.	s.	d.	Boroughs.	£.	s.	d.
Basingstoke	4,400	0	0	Brought forward . .	24,398	14	2
Beaumaris	4,200	0	0	Llandovery	40	0	0
Beccles	3,500	0	0	Maidenhead	2,000	0	0
Blandford Forum . .	1,500	0	0	Penryn	1,265	11	0
Bodmin	1,500	0	0	Retford, East	3,000	0	0
Chard!	225	0	0	Ruthin	150	0	0
Chippenham	450	0	0	Rye	1,000	0	0
Daventre	283	14	2	Sandwich	140	0	0
Droitwich	150	0	0	Southwold	8,280	0	0
Eye	290	0	0	South Molton	231	0	0
Glastonbury	400	0	0	Stratford-on-Avon . .	5,447	0	0
Godmanchester . . .	2,800	0	0	Thetford !.	4,200	0	0
Huntingdon	4,700	0	0	Totness	3,150	0	0
Carried forward . .	24,398	14	2	Total	53,302	5	2

If, as is probable, there has been, since the date of these figures, in 1835, scarcely any reduction in the total of the debts due by the smaller municipalities included in the Corporation Act, the sum due by the whole of the remodelled boroughs will exceed 1,820,000*l*. The following Table, abstracted from the Reports of the Commissioners, shows the financial condition of the several boroughs whose institutions remain unaltered by that Statute; and their position with regard to income, expenditure, or debt, will not have undergone any great changes since the date of the Reports.

TABLE XIII.—Abstract of the Statements contained in the Commissioners' Reports of the Moneys annually received and expended on account of the Boroughs whose Institutions are unaltered by the Municipal Reform Act, 5 and 6 Wm. IV., c. 76; and of the amount of Debt due by any of those Boroughs at the period of their Reports, in 1835.

Borough.	Income.	Expenditure.	Debt.
	£. s. d.		£. s. d.
Aberavon	40 0 0	{ £13.—Entertainments and petty charges; law expenses, lately exceeding the remainder; small tolls, besides the stated income, taken by portreve }	..
Aldeburgh. . . .	300 0 0	{ Under £300.—Salaries; law charges; entertainments; donations to purposes of charity }	..
Alnwick	600 0 0	{ £450.—Salaries; stipends, interest of money borrowed; rates and taxes }	300 0 0
Appleby	370 17 9	{ £300.—Annual entertainments; interest on debts; salaries; repairs of property and streets; total nearly equal to income. . }	645 19 6
Axbridge	100 0 0	{ £100.—Chiefly in improvements, and on Guildhall and market-house }	470 0 0
Berkeley	28 0 0	{ £28.—Interest of debt and corporation dinners; appropriation of tolls by mayor }	400 0 0
Bishop's Castle . .	29 0 0	{ £29.—Salaries and conduit . . }	..
Carried forward.	1,467 17 9	£1,220 0 0	1,815 19 6

TABLE XIII.—*Abstract of the Statements of Moneys, &c.—continued.*

Borough.	Income.	Expenditure.	Debt.
	£. s. d.		£. s. d.
ught forward	1,467 17 9	£1,220.	1,815 19 6
ney . . .	4 4 0	£4. 4s.—Supposed; not stated
sley . . .	Nil.	Nil
ing . . .	6 17 11	{£9. 14s. 4d.—Fee-farm rent; sa- laries; annual dinner}	..
ninch . .	64 10 0	{£67. 15s.—Dinner on election of mayor, and sessions dinners; sa- laries; subscription to hospital; insurance; interest of debt; re- pairs; incidental expenses . . .}	500 0 0
alford . .	55 0 0	{£40.—Salaries of officers; no re- gular account}	..
stchurch . .	60 0 0	£60.—Whole proceeds taken by mayor.	..
.	Nil.	Nil.	..
ay . . .	207 0 0	£207	617 0 0
ridge. . .	130 0 0	{£130.—Applied to reduction of debt and general purposes . . .}	700 0 0
now, Great .	21 0 0	{£21.—Wholly in a feast}	..
vich . . .	150 0 0	{£150.—Interest of debt; repairs and works against the sea; rates; feu-reeves; tavern expenses; sundries; law expenses; heavy law expenses in suit against Southwold.	1,200 0 0
wich . . .	16 7 0	{£16. 7s.—Small salaries; mayor's postage; tradesmen's bills; care of fishery}	..
tang . . .	34 10 0	{£30.—Interest of debt; salaries; collection of tolls; subscription for lighting the town; repairs; insurance, and tavern expenses .}	100 0 0
lepool. . .	50 0 0	{£47.—Smallness of ordinary ob- jects; principal expense in keep- ing up the sea wall.}	..
on	370 0 0	{£370.—Fee-farm rents and tithes; salaries; repairs; paving; ringers; taxes and assessments; chari- table gifts}	..
ey upon Thames	72 0 0	{£72.—Salaries to officers and cler- gyman; allowances to jury; in- surance; land tax; repairs of hall; incidental expenses . . .}	..
iam Ferrers .	174 0 0	{£150.—Probably in future a re- duction of £50 a-year; land-tax; tithe; labour; salaries; dona- tions; tradesmen's bills; enter- tainments to tenants}	1,110 0 0
.	Nil.	Nil
ster . . .	17 0 0	{£20.—Salaries; repairs; and mis- cellanies}	..
ig. . . .	25 0 0	£25.—Salaries; ale; furniture, &c.	..
velly . . .	145 0 0	{£145.—Including £25 received in tolls by corporate officers; re- cent excess over income; law ex- penses}	430 0 0
erran . . .	Nil.	Nil
arried forward	3,070 6 8	£3,043 0s. 4d.	6,472 19 6

TABLE XIII.—Abstract of the Statements of Moneys, &c.—continued.

Borough.	Income.	Expenditure.	Debt.
	£. s. d.		£. s. d.
Brought forward	3,070 6 8	£3,043 0s. 4d.	6,472 19 6
Langport Eastover.	169 0 0	{ £129.—Salaries, taxes, &c.; surplus income; application to repairs and contingencies; remaining surplus }	280 0 0
Laugharne . .	70 0 0	{ £70.—Salaries; repairs; school; ale }	..
Looe, East. . .	100 16 0	{ £125.—Ordinary expenditure; repairs to quays and streets; salaries; incidental and extraordinary expenses }	..
Looe, West . .	48 4 0	{ £55.—Repairs of quays, streets, and roads; taxes; salaries of officers; maintenance of Guildhall, and entertainments; no regular accounts kept previous to passing Reform Act; deficiency of income }	..
Lostwithiel . .	153 18 3	{ £129. 3s.—Under direction of mayor; highways; repairs, lamps and lighting; rates and taxes; constables' expenses, &c. . . }	..
Lydd	29 4 6	£29. 4s. 6d.—Serjeant's salary, &c.	..
Malmesbury . .	Nil.	Nil
Marageon . . .	38 0 0	{ £34. 1s. 3d.—Occasional excess over income; officers' fees; collection of tolls; insurance; fee to clergyman; law expenses . }	15 0 0
Montgomery . .	Not reported.	{ Not reported.—Petty income from allotment under Inclosure Act divided among the burgesses . . }	..
Newport Pembroke	Nil.	Nil
Newport (Salop) .	35 10 0	{ £35. 10s.—Distribution to poor; maintenance of railed cisterns and conduits }	..
Newtown . . .	14 18 0	{ £14. 18s.—Fee-farm rent; salaries, &c.; usual balance against common clerk }	..
Okehampton . .	423 4 7	{ £210. 17s. 6d.—Repairs; salaries; sessions expenses; law charges; chief rent; rates and taxes; interest of debt; mayoralty . . }	700 0 0
Orford	100 0 0	{ £100.—Entertainment; erecting a town pump; surplus applied in liquidation of debt }	..
Pevensey . . .	85 0 0	{ £85.—Dinners; salaries; town clerk's bill; small yearly payment to Hastings corporation; trifling debt }	..
Plympton Earle .	18 1 8	{ £18. 19s.—Rent to Earl Morley; repairs of the Guildhall; salaries; rent of house; taxes . . . }	..
Carried forward	4,356 3 8	£3,821 13s. 7d.	6,467 19 6

TABLE XIII.—*Abstract of the Statements of Moneys, &c.—continued.*

Borough.	Income.	Expenditure.	Debt.
Brought forward	£. s. d. 4,356 3 8	£3,821 13s. 7d.	£. s. d. 6,467 19 6
Quinborowe . .	12,500 0 0	{ £12,500.—Purchase of seed oysters and attendant expenses; laying; catching; merchants; salesmen; debt paid off and inter- est; payments in nature of sala- ries; permanent outgoings; chari- ties; annuities; contingencies.	13,637 9 2
Radnor, New . .	21 10 0	{ £21. 10s.—Whole income absorbed under sequestration
Romney Marsh .	Nil.	Nil	1,300 0 0
Ruyton	Nil.	Nil
Saltash	300 0 0	{ £300.—Could not be accurately ascertained; absence of all proper accounts; large debts	1,826 6 2
Seaford	60 0 0	{ £60.—School subscription; trifling salaries to town clerk and serjeant at mace
St. Clears . . .	45 0 0	{ £45.—Half-yearly dinners; offi- cers' fees; small surplus shared by 36 senior burgesses
Sutton Coldfield .	747 11 9	{ £747.—Regulation by Court of Chancery; payment of salaries; clothing and machinery; allow- ance for charity
Thornbury . . .	Nil.	Nil
Tregony	28 5 0	{ £28. 5s.—Difficulty of obtaining accurate account; former excess over income	125 0 0
Wareham	40 0 0	{ £40.—Appropriation of petty quay and market dues
Westbury	45 0 0	{ £45.—Wholly received by mayor.	..
Winchelsea . . .	22 3 7	{ £30.—Chiefly connected with par- liamentary elections; large nomi- nal balance in favour of treasurer, paid by Parliamentary patron
Wilton	136 0 0	{ £203.—Rates; insurance; sala- ries and expenses of officers; works, &c.; petty disbursements; balance in hand
Wokingham . . .	Nil.	Nil	60 0 0
Wootton Bassett .	Nil.	Nil
Woodstock . . .	140 0 0	{ £160.—Corporation accounts blended with charity account, con- sequent impossibility of ascer- taining exact amount of corporate expenditure
Yarmouth	30 0 0	{ £30.—Town clerk and serjeant's salary; allowance forleet dinner; quit rent; repairs, &c.; occa- sional excess over income from extraordinary repairs
Yeovil	71 0 0	{ £41.—Personal charges of officers; chief rent; portreve; almswomen; expenditure in erection of schools.	..
Total	18,542 14 0	£18,072 8s. 7d.	24,416 14 10

The principal kinds of property possessed by the ancient municipalities are thus enumerated in the analysis of the Commissioners' Reports :—

Kinds of Property, and the Number of Boroughs by which they were possessed in 1835.

Sources of Income.	Boroughs.	Sources of Income.	Boroughs.
Admissions to freedom	14	Mills	5
Anchorage	6	Oyster fishery	5
Alienations	76	Patronage (Ecclesiastical)	42
Canal shares	3	Pew rents	2
Chief rents	6	Port dues	11
Coal dues	4	Pressage of wine	1
Exchange	2	Quay dues	14
Fee-farm rents	39	Quit rents	13
Fees	156	Railway shares	2
Felons' goods	5	River dues	4
Ferry	3	Stock	17
Fines	19	Tolls	145
Fish dues	1	Town dues	12
Fisheries	16	Town Hall	28
Gas shares	5	Town soil	1
Harbour dues	10	Turnpike-road shares	5
Interest	1	Waifs and estrays	1
Lands and Tenements	211	Water rents	6
Markets	56	Wharfage dues	6

Ecclesiastical patronage, however, no longer appears among the items of corporate *income*, provision being made in the Corporation Act for the sale of all livings in the gift of Municipal Corporations, under the direction of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners.

The borough rates, levied to defray the expenses of the administration of justice, were formerly imposed by the borough magistrates, precisely as a county rate is assessed; and the transfer of the power of assessment to the council is an important change, though not without examples in the former state of the boroughs, under prescriptive custom, as well as under charters and statutes.* The return, No. 610, Session 1840, gives a total of 95 boroughs, in which a borough rate is levied by the town councils, under the provisions of the Corporation Act; and 81, in which rates are also levied under the local Acts enumerated in the Schedule (E) annexed to that statute. The amount of the former for the last preceding year to the close of which the accounts had been made up, was 127,920*l.* 8*s.* 6½*d.*, and of the latter, 141,802*l.* 14*s.* 11¾*d.*; showing a decrease in the latter, since the year before the Act came into operation, of 17,493*l.* 11*s.* 9*d.* The annexed Table (XIV., pp. 159—161.) is an abstract from the return.

The constitution of the Boards of Commissioners levying rates under local acts has already been described, as well as the purposes to which the revenues are applicable. But it is impossible to describe the details of their expenditure without information which has yet to be gathered. The few succeeding remarks are, therefore, confined to the expenditure of the Borough Funds; the totals of the preceding accounts of the expenditure of the remodelled corporations being brought into the analytical arrangement of the functions of these bodies, which we have hitherto observed.

* Analysis, page 545.

TABLE XIV.—*Return of (1) every Borough levying a Borough Rate under the Act 5 and 6 Wm. 4, c. 76, (2) of the Amount of such Rate for the last Year for which the Accounts have been made up; and also (3) of the Amount of the Rate levied at the same Period under each of the several Local Acts enumerated in Schedule (E.) of the said Act.*

1. Boroughs.	2. Amount of Borough Rate for the last Year for which the Accounts have been made up.	3. Amount of Rate levied at the same Period under each of the several Local Acts.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Aberystwith . . .	No return.	
Abingdon . . .	314 1 8	596 15 7½
Andover . . .	340 19 7	. . . {Not mentioned in Schedule (E.)
Arundel	174 12 10
Banbury . . .	746 17 7½	1,171 5 1
Barnstaple . . .	200 0 0	480 8 3
Basingstoke . . .	300 0 0	302 14 7
Bath . . .	6,420 4 3	. . .
„	1,322 7 1 {Under 33 Geo. 3, c. 89, & 6 Geo. 4, c. 70.
„	1,106 2 9 {Under 41 Geo. 3, c. 126.
Bedford . . .	332 4 8	998 16 10
Berwick-upon-Tweed	475 7 8	450 0 0
Beverley . . .	940 19 5*	591 16 6
Bideford . . .	270 0 0	. . . No Local Act.
Boston {Under 16 Geo. 3, c. 25, & 46 Geo. 3, c. 41.
Brecon . . .	116 10 0	550 0 0 {Under 32 Geo. 3, c. 80, and 46 Geo. 3, c. 40.
Bridgenorth . . .	508 12 8	. . .
Bridgewater . . .	1,037 14 5	274 13 8
Bridport	187 4 6
Bristol . . .	17,000 0 0	10,000 0 0 {Under 46 Geo. 3, c. 26.
„	15,957 3 0 {Under 3 Geo. 4, c. 24, for the poor.
(Parish of Clifton)	1,758 3 8 {Under 5 Geo. 4, c. 79.
(United parishes of St. James and St. Paul)	. . .	3,361 17 3 {Under 2 Wm. 4, c. 89.†
Buckingham . . .	373 17 6	. . . No Local Act.
Bury St. Edmunds
(St. Mary's parish)	. . .	909 14 8
(St. James's parish)	. . .	904 12 1
Cambridge . . .	2,696 11 10½	2,239 16 2½
Canterbury . . .	1,963 6 7	604 0 0
Carlisle	1,144 11 11 {Under 44 Geo. 3, c. 58.
Carmarthen . . .	1,531 3 11	. . .
Chester . . .	2,745 11 4 ‡	1,895 16 10
Chesterfield . . .	335 0 0	. . . No Local Acts.
Chichester . . .	694 14 11	392 10 4 {Under 31 Geo. 3, c. 63.
„	713 8 11 {Under 1 and 2 Geo. 4, c. 68.
Carried forward .	39,343 18 1	50,433 14 1

* The amount of the Watch Rate, 140*l.* 19*s.* 5*d.*, is included in this sum.

† By mistake called 2 Geo. 4, in the Schedule to the Act 5 and 6 Wm. 4. This sum includes Poor Rates, and rates for repairing, lighting, and watching the district.

‡ Of this sum 645*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.* was for Watch Rate.

TABLE XIV.—Return of every Borough, &c.—continued.

1. Boroughs.	2. Amount of Borough Rate for the last Year for which the Accounts have been made up.	3. Amount of Rate levied at the same Period under each of the several Local Acts.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Brought forward .	39,343 18 1	50,433 14 1
Chippenham . . .	150 0 0	466 17 9½
Chipping Norton . . .	150 0 0	—
Clitheroe . . .	Council, as Inspectors, make an order on the poor's rate for 220l.	No Local Acts.
Colchester . . .	1,464 7 7	No Local Act.
Congleton . . .	600 0 0	Ditto.
Coventry . . .	3,238 11 6	2,940 18 0
Dartmouth . . .	—	154 17 0
Daventry . . .	98 0 0	401 0 1
Deal . . .	620 0 0	481 18 0
Derby . . .	2,000 0 0	3,629 17 9
Devizes . . .	403 8 9*	—
Dorchester . . .	—	357 12 4
Dover . . .	2,180 2 6	1,018 8 5
Durham . . .	—	458 0 1¾
Evesham . . .	229 19 11	427 5 2
Exeter . . .	—	7,107 10 7
Falmouth . . .	400 0 0	—
Faversham . . .	572 12 6	879 2 3¾
Folkestone . . .	400 0 0	52 7 4
Gateshead . . .	347 19 1	512 11 11
Glastonbury . . .	139 8 8	285 14 0
Gloucester . . .	2,300 13 4	700 0 0
„ . . .	—	111 12 5½
„ . . .	—	300 0 0
„ . . .	—	399 17 1½
„ . . .	—	331 8 1½
Godalming . . .	97 19 1	—
Godmanchester . . .	125 0 0	—
Grantham . . .	620 0 6	—
Gravesend . . .	899 3 0	1,943 17 10
Guildford . . .	215 8 10	322 18 0
„ . . .	—	528 14 9
„ . . .	—	—
Harwich . . .	—	—
Hastings . . .	1,827 9 8	1,056 14 2
„ . . .	—	898 14 6
Hereford . . .	861 0 0	448 3 0†
„ . . .	—	1,101 5 6
„ . . .	—	448 3 0†
Hertford . . .	205 12 6	570 14 4
Huntingdon . . .	300 0 0	327 19 6
Hythe . . .	—	219 0 4½
Ipswich . . .	1,276 7 8	1,448 4 10
Kidderminster . . .	1,104 0 0	850 0 0
Lancaster . . .	—	1,033 6 2
Leeds . . .	9,917 7 5	3,117 6 7
Leicester . . .	2,627 17 8½	—
Leominster . . .	277 10 11	199 1 4
Carried forward .	74,843 19 2½	85,964 16 6

* Of this sum 148l. 9s. 10d. was for a Watch Rate.

† Watch Rate.

‡ Watch Rate.

§ From September 19, 1838, to June 12, 1839.

TABLE XIV.—Return of every Borough, &c.—continued.

1. Boroughs.	2. Amount of Borough Rate for the last Year for which the Accounts have been made up.	3. Amount of Rate levied at the same Period under each of the several Local Acts.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Brought forward .	74,843 19 2½	85,964 16 6
Lincoln	1,056 3 9½
Llanidloes	158 2 10½
King's Lynn	3,323 18 3
Maidstone	3,138 0 9	4,121 5 8
Maldon	706 10 4
Newark	938 4 2
Newbury	200 0 0	1,102 4 9½
Newcastle-under-Lyne	No return.
Newport	584 2 0	771 12 9
Northampton	2,327 8 7	2,299 7 10
Norwich	5,142 14 3	8,500 7 10
Nottingham	4,800 0 0	1,000 0 0
Oswestry	368 15 6	262 6 4
Penzance	No return.
Plymouth	1,741 13 6	4,969 15 7
Pontefract	310 13 9½	423 18 1
Poole	4,297 11 11
Portsmouth	1,704 11 8	730 1 1
"	341 3 9
"	450 9 0
Preston	5,614 6 6*
Reading	843 0 0	3,246 1 6
Rochester	895 0 6†	114 16 10½
Romsey Infra Hants	90 0 0
Rye	280 0 0
Saffron Walden	270 0 0
St. Albans	No return.
Sandwich	154 0 10	112 3 0
New Sarum	1,302 0 0	1,251 17 11
Shrewsbury	800 0 0	1,247 5 6
Southampton	2,646 0 0	2,076 9 9
Stamford	1,643 1 6
Stockport	1,186 14 1¾
Sudbury	362 10 0
Sunderland	2,931 15 0
"	833 12 6
"	1,012 14 2
Tamworth	120 0 0
Tenterden	320 3 0
Tewkesbury	670 2 2	403 12 3
Thetford	552 15 2
Tiverton	387 1 1½	366 11 6
Great Torrington	60 0 0
Truro
Carried forward .	116,776 11 11¾	131,597 2 8½

No Local Act.

{ None levied under any
Local Act.
Ditto.{ No Local Acts.
Under 8 Geo. 3.
Under 16 Geo. 3, c. 69.
Under 32 Geo. 3, c. 103,
& 7 Geo. 4, c. 64.

No Local Acts.

{ No Local Act.
Local Act repealed in
1837.
{ Not included in Sche-
dule (E.){ Under 50 Geo. 3, c. 25.
Under 7 Geo. 4, c. 120.
No Local Act.
Ditto.{ No Local Act.
No Borough Rate.* Of this sum 500*l.* was for Watch Rate.† Of this sum 481*l.* 10*s.* 9*d.* was for Watch Rate.

TABLE XIV.—Return of every Borough, &c.—continued.

1. Boroughs.	2. Amount of Borough Rate for the last Year for which the Accounts have been made up.	3. Amount of Rate levied at the same Period under each of the several Local Acts.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Brought forward .	116,776 11 11½	131,597 2 8½
Wallingford . . .	151 0 7½	183 17 2
Walsall	1,080 0 0	500 0 0
Warwick	781 11 6
Wells	441 19 8	343 8 0
Wenlock	91 19 1½
Weymouth and Mel- combe Regis . . . }	No Local Acts.
Wigan	1,693 5 6	900 0 0
Winchester	1,689 17 5*	No Borough Rate.
New Windsor . . .	664 13 0
Wisbech	309 10 8
Worcester	2,092 10 8	{ No rate levied under any Local Act.
York	2,147 9 8	2,185 12 2
„	2,674 14 5
		1,770 12 8
Total	127,920 9 9½	142,602 13 0½

* Of this sum, 782*l.* 1*s.* 2*d.* was for Watch Rate.

5. Public Establishments and Bye-Laws.

Perhaps the item of law expenses, one which is very heavy, being no less than £29,642. 1*s.* 0½*d.*, can scarcely be classed under this head, which comprises expressly only the two following, viz.:—

Rents, rates, taxes, and insurance	£. s. d.
Salaries, pensions, and allowances to Municipal officers.	20,866 16 2½
	80,757 11 5½
	£ 101,624 7 7½

The head of “Entertainments,” with its subordinate items of “Cook,” “Ringers,” and “Tavern Expenses,” though it appears in various parts of the Commissioners’ Reports, seems to be banished from the accounts of the remodelled corporations; and it is to be hoped that there has been some retrenchment with regard to the “Municipal Officers,” even to the extent of abolishing many of the offices which existed at the time of the Commissioners’ investigations, although some are certainly of great antiquity. The following lists of the principal and of the inferior officers, with the number of boroughs in which each office is mentioned to have been found, will at once indicate the functions which they exercised, the duties which really have to be discharged, and the necessity which existed of clearing away some of this antiquated machinery; in which, perhaps, the power of the Council to make bye-laws, not only for its own regulation, but for the suppression and avoidance of nuisances in the borough, could not be better exercised.

*Principal Officers; and the number of Boroughs in which they existed
in 1835.*

Officers.	Boroughs.	Officers.	Boroughs.
Admiral of the Humber	1	High Bailiff	3
Aldermen	138	High Steward	51
Assessor of the Court of Requests	1	Judge of Admiralty Court	15
Auditor	23	Jurats	18
Bailiff	120	Justices of Peace	190
Bailiff Deputy	4	Keeper of Keys of Coffers	1
Bailiff of the Bailiwick	1	Land Steward	5
Bailiff of the Brethren	1	Marshal of the Admiralty Court	2
Bailiff of the Commons	1	Master	2
Bailiff of the Liberties	1	Mayor	241
Bridge Masters	3	Mayor Deputy	62
Bridge Wardens	2	Mayor of the Staple	1
Chamberlain	203	Portreve	18
Chamberlain, Assistant	1	Prothonotary of Civil Court	10
Chamberlain, Deputy	1	Receiver	8
Chamber-reeve	1	Recorder	244
Chaplain	3	Recorder Deputy	61
City Marshal	1	Register	1
City Solicitor	1	Sergeants-at-Mace	177
Clavigers	2	Sheriff	18
Clerk of the Market	111	Speaker of the Common Council	1
Clerk of the Committees	1	Steward	30
Clerk	1	Steward Deputy	11
Clerk of the Peace	139	Steward of Courts	8
Clerk to the Magistrates	2	Superintendent of Police	4
Coffers	3	Surgeon of Gaol	11
Common Attorney	6	Surveyor	10
Common Clerk	8	Town Bailiff	2
Constable of the Castle	12	Town Chamberlain	1
Coroner	151	Town Clerk	256
Custumar	1	Town Clerk, Deputy	25
Electors	2	Town's Husband	1
Erection Bailiff	1	Town Sergeant	11
Escheator	27	Treasurer	22
Foreman of the Customs	1	Treasurer of the Soken	1
Gaoler	58	Warden	1
Governor	3	Water Bailiff	29
Harbour Master	9	Water Bailiff, deputy	3

Inferior Officers.

Officers.	Boroughs.	Officers.	Boroughs.
Accountant	3	Beadle	44
Aldermen of the Wards	3	Beadle and Pound Keeper	1
Ale Conners	4	Beadle and Wardman	1
Ale Founders	6	Bellmen	22
Ale Tasters	25	Bellman and Beadle	1
Aulneger	1	Bell Ringer	1
Auctioneer	1	Billet Master	4
Bailiffs	45	Blower of Burghmote Horn	1
Bailiff, Under	1	Boatmen	1
Bailiff of the Bourne	1	Borsholders	7
Bailiff of the Liberties	1	Borsholder, Deputy	1
Bailiff's Man	1	Bread Weigher	5
Bailiff's Serjeant	3	Bridgemen	1
Ballast Assessor	1	Bridge Keeper	1

TABLE XIV.—*Return of every Borough, &c.—continued.*

1. Boroughs.	2. Amount of Borough Rate for the last Year for which the Accounts have been made up.	3. Amount of Rate levied at the same Period under each of the several Local Acts.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Brought forward .	116,776 11 11½	131,597 2 8½
Wallingford . . .	151 0 7½	183 17 2
Walsall	1,080 0 0	500 0 0
Warwick	781 11 6	. . .
Wells	441 19 8	343 8 0
Wenlock	91 19 1½	. . .
Weymouth and Mel- combe Regis . . . }	. . .	No Local Acts.
Wigan	1,693 5 6	900 0 0
Winchester	1,689 17 5*	No Borough Rate.
New Windsor . . .	664 13 0	. . .
Wisbech	309 10 8	. . .
Worcester	2,092 10 8	{ No rate levied under any Local Act.
York	2,147 9 8	2,185 12 2
,,	2,674 14 5
		1,770 12 8
Total	127,920 9 9½	142,602 13 0½

* Of this sum, 782*l.* 1*s.* 2*d.* was for Watch Rate.5. *Public Establishments and Bye-Laws.*

Perhaps the item of law expenses, one which is very heavy, being no less than £29,642. 1*s.* 0½*d.*, can scarcely be classed under this head, which comprises expressly only the two following, viz. :—

Rents, rates, taxes, and insurance	£. s. d.
Salaries, pensions, and allowances to Municipal officers.	20,866 16 2½
	80,757 11 5½
	£ 101,624 7 7½

The head of "Entertainments," with its subordinate items of "Cook," "Ringers," and "Tavern Expenses," though it appears in various parts of the Commissioners' Reports, seems to be banished from the accounts of the remodelled corporations; and it is to be hoped that there has been some retrenchment with regard to the "Municipal Officers," even to the extent of abolishing many of the offices which existed at the time of the Commissioners' investigations, although some are certainly of great antiquity. The following lists of the principal and of the inferior officers, with the number of boroughs in which each office is mentioned to have been found, will at once indicate the functions which they exercised, the duties which really have to be discharged, and the necessity which existed of clearing away some of this antiquated machinery; in which, perhaps, the power of the Council to make bye-laws, not only for its own regulation, but for the suppression and avoidance of nuisances in the borough, could not be better exercised.

*Principal Officers ; and the number of Boroughs in which they existed
in 1835.*

Officers.	Boroughs.	Officers.	Boroughs.
Admiral of the Humber	1	High Bailiff	3
Aldermen	138	High Steward	51
Assessor of the Court of Requests	1	Judge of Admiralty Court	15
Auditor	23	Jurats	18
Bailiff	120	Justices of Peace	190
Bailiff Deputy	4	Keeper of Keys of Coffers	1
Bailiff of the Bailiwick	1	Land Steward	5
Bailiff of the Brethren	1	Marshal of the Admiralty Court	2
Bailiff of the Commons	1	Master	2
Bailiff of the Liberties	1	Mayor	241
Bridge Masters	3	Mayor Deputy	62
Bridge Wardens	2	Mayor of the Staple	1
Chamberlain	203	Portreve	18
Chamberlain, Assistant	1	Prothonotary of Civil Court	10
Chamberlain, Deputy	1	Receiver	8
Chamber-reeve	1	Recorder	244
Chaplain	3	Recorder Deputy	61
City Marshal	1	Register	1
City Solicitor	1	Sergeants-at-Mace	177
Clavigers	2	Sheriff	18
Clerk of the Market	111	Speaker of the Common Council	1
Clerk of the Committees	1	Steward	30
Clerk	1	Steward Deputy	11
Clerk of the Peace	139	Steward of Courts	8
Clerk to the Magistrates	2	Superintendent of Police	4
Coffers	3	Surgeon of Gaol	11
Common Attorney	6	Surveyor	10
Common Clerk	8	Town Bailiff	2
Constable of the Castle	12	Town Chamberlain	1
Coroner	151	Town Clerk	256
Custumar	1	Town Clerk, Deputy	25
Electors	2	Town's Husband	1
Erection Bailiff	1	Town Sergeant	11
Escheator	27	Treasurer	22
Foreman of the Customs	1	Treasurer of the Soke	1
Gaoler	58	Warden	1
Governor	3	Water Bailiff	29
Harbour Master	9	Water Bailiff, deputy	3

Inferior Officers.

Officers.	Boroughs.	Officers.	Boroughs.
Accountant	3	Beadle	44
Aldermen of the Wards	3	Beadle and Pound Keeper	1
Ale Conners	4	Beadle and Wardman	1
Ale Founders	6	Bellmen	22
Ale Tasters	25	Bellman and Beadle	1
Aulneger	1	Bell Ringer	1
Auctioneer	1	Billet Master	4
Bailiffs	45	Blower of Burghmote Horn	1
Bailiff, Under	1	Boatmen	1
Bailiff of the Bourne	1	Borsholders	7
Bailiff of the Liberties	1	Borsholder, Deputy	1
Bailiff's Man	1	Bread Weigher	5
Bailiff's Serjeant	3	Bridgemen	1
Ballast Assessor	1	Bridge Keeper	1

Officers.	Boroughs.	Officers.	Boroughs.
Bridge Sweeper	1	Doorkeeper of Mayor's Chamber	1
Bucket Keepers	1	Dragon Bearer	1
Burleigh Men	1	Driver of Commons	1
Butchery Keeper	1	Egg Collector	1
Butter Searcher	1	Escheator	27
Butter Weigher	1	Fen Reeve	3
Charcoal Man and Beadle	1	Feyrers	1
Churchwarden	5	Field Drivers	1
Claviger	2	Fish and Flesh Searchers	1
Cleaner of Castle Walks	1	Flesh and Fish Lookers	1
Cleaner of Chandelier	1	Flesh Taster	1
Cleaner of Flags	1	Flesh Wardens	1
Clerk Assistant	1	Foreign Receiver	1
Clerk of Chamber	2	Free Suitors	1
Clerk of Haymarket	1	Game Keeper	2
Clerk of the Market	87	Gateman	1
Clerk of the Market, Deputy	3	Gauger of Casks	1
Clerk of Recognizances	1	Governor of Barbican	1
Clerk of St. James's Market	1	Grassmen	1
Clerk to Cattle Market Committee	1	Great Mace Bearer	1
Clerk to Revenue Committee	1	Hall Keeper	2
Coal Meters	10	Hall Warden	1
Coal Porters	1	Harbour Master, Upper	9
Coal Weigher	1	Haven Master	2
Cobb Warden	1	Haymakers	1
Collector of Births and Burials	1	Haywards	13
Collector of Butchers' Market Rents	1	Headboroughs	3
Collector of Cattle Market Dues	1	Hedge Lookers	1
Collector of Cobb Dues	1	Herd	1
Collector of Corn Prices	1	Hog Driver	1
Collector of Customs	1	Horn-blower	1
Collector of Exchange Market	1	Hospital Chamberlain	1
Collector of Fish Dues	1	Housekeeper at Grand Stand	1
Collector of Rents	3	Housekeeper of Mansion House	1
Collector of Rents and Tolls	1	House Steward	1
Collector of River Dues	1	Inspector of Butchers' Meat	1
Collector of Stallage	1	Inspector of Corn Rents	1
Collector of Tolls	1	Inspector of Conduit	1
Collector of Tonnage Dues	2	Inspector of Custom House Accounts	1
Collector of Town Dues	3	Inspectors of Fish and Flesh	1
Colliery Viewer	1	Inspector of Nuisances	1
Common Measurer	1	Inspectors of Pinders and Tenters of Common	1
Common Serjeant	3	Inspectors of Sewers	1
Common Wardman	1	Keeper of Bridewell	1
Commons' Beadle	1	Keepers of Buoys	1
Conductors of Fire Engines	1	Keeper of Clocks	3
Conduit Wardens	1	Keepers of the Common Chest	1
Constables, Chief	14	Keeper of Corporation Pews	1
Constables, Deputy	3	Keeper of Exchange	2
Conservators of the Delf	1	Keeper of Gates	1
Constables of the Staple	2	Keeper of the House of Correction	4
Cook	2	Keeper of Keys of Booths	1
Corn Meters	5	Keepers of Lighthouses	1
Corn Prisers	1	Keeper of Market	1
Coroner's Clerk	1	Keeper of the Town Hall	1
Crane Porters	1	Keeper of Watts's Charity	1
Crier	50	Keeper of Weigh House	1
Crier of the Court	2	Key Keepers	5
Day Bellman	1	King's Hackneyemen	1
Deacon of Shambles	1	Layr Keepers	3
Discreets of Market	1		

Officers.	Boroughs.	Officers.	Boroughs.
Leather Sealers	5	River Constable	1
Leather Searcher	3	Sample Man	1
Leave Lookers	4	Sand Walkers	1
Le Yeoman	1	Scavengers	9
Librarian	1	Schoolmaster	1
Lighthouse Keeper	2	School Wardens	1
Mace Bearer	23	Sealers of Weights	1
Market Keeper	3	Searchers	1
Market Lookers	2	Searchers and Sealers of Leather	7
Market Policeman	1	Searchers for unwholesome Meat	1
Market Sayer	1	Searchers of Market	3
Marshalmen	1	Searchers of Weights and Measures	3
Matron	5	Searcher of Woollen Cloths	1
Mayor's Bailiff	1	Secretary	4
Mayor's Beadle	1	Seizers	1
Mayor's Clerk	1	Serjeant at Brazen Mace	2
Mayor's Officers	2	Serjeant at Mace	29
Mayor's Serjeant	8	Serjeant of Chamber	1
Mayoress's Serjeant	1	Sexton	2
Measurer and Gauger	1	Shamble Wardens	2
Measurer of Coal	1	Sheriff's Bailiffs	1
Measurer of Corn	1	Sheriff's Serjeant	1
Meat Inspectors	1	Sidesmen	1
Minstrels	1	Staff Bearers	1
Mole Catcher	1	Stallingers	1
Moor Grieves	1	Standard Bearers	1
Moor Men	1	Steward	30
Moor Warden	1	Storekeeper	1
Muragers	1	Street Driver	1
Murengers	1	Street-keeper and Crier	1
Neat Herds	1	Street Wardens	2
Night Bellman	1	Sub-Bailiffs	5
Nurse	1	Summoner	1
Organist	9	Superintendents of Leet	1
Organist to Mayor's Chapel	1	Superintendent of Market	3
Overseers of Common	1	Superintendent of Night Watch	4
Parish Clerk	1	Supervisors	1
Pasture Masters	1	Supervisors of Lands	1
Patrol	1	Supervisors of the Bounds	1
Pew Opener	1	Surveyor	10
Pier Wardens	1	Surveyor of Highways	1
Pilot Masters	1	Surveyor of Hospital Houses	1
Pinder	8	Surveyor of Roads	1
Porters and Measurers	3	Surveyor of Water Pipes	1
Porters at Gate	1	Swanner	1
Portreves	18	Sweeper of Streets	1
Pound Driver	2	Sword Bearer	21
Pound Keeper	3	Tenant of Beacons	1
Presenters	1	Telegraph Keeper	1
Presenters of Butchers	1	Tipstaves	5
Promoter	1	Tithing Men	5
Providers	1	Toll Gatherers	1
Quay and Harbour Master	1	Tonnage Surveyor	1
Quay Treasurer	1	Town Inspector	1
Quay Warden	2	Town Marshal	1
Receiver of Port Dues	1	Town Servant	1
Receiver of Returns	1	Town Stewards	3
Registrar and Beadle of Court of Conscience	1	Town Surveyor	1
Renters	1	Treasurer of Bridge	1
Ringers	2	Waits	2
		Ward Beadles	1

Officers.	Boroughs.	Officers.	Boroughs.
Wardens of the Fish Market	1	Weeder of Footpaths	1
Wardens of the Flesh Market	1	Weigher of Hay	1
Wardens of Orphans	1	Weigher of Wool	1
Wardens (Under)	1	Wharfinger	2
Warden's Clerk	1	Whifflers	1
Warreners and Gamekeeper	1	Wood and Chimney Searchers	1
Water Bailiff	29	Yeomen of the Pentice Court	1
Water Bailiff (Deputy)	3	Yeoman Serjeant	1

6. Paving, Lighting, Cleansing, &c.

The small proportion which the corporate expenditure upon these objects (38,319*l.* 2*s.* 11½*d.*) bears to the total sum of 142,593*l.* 13*s.* 0½*d.*, levied under local Acts, chiefly to be applied to them, shows how completely this portion of the public service had escaped the old corporations; but it does not indicate how much of the latter is now in the administration of the remodelled councils, either partially under the terms of the local Acts, or wholly by the surrender of the trust to the corporation under clause 175 of the Corporation Act.

7. Public Buildings and Places.

Under this head we may class the items:—

Public works, repairs, &c.	£160,122 4 8
Markets and fairs	11,650 16 7
	<hr/>
	£171,773 1 3

8. Harbours, Docks, and Navigation.

These are generally the subject of special trusts under local Acts, in which the corporations are part trustees: in some instances they possess the whole trust.

9. Charitable Trusts.

By clause 71 of the Corporation Act, it was provided that the charitable trusts, wherever such were held by municipal corporations, should remain in the hands of the old corporations until the 1st day of August, 1836, when the Lord Chancellor, unless Parliament should otherwise direct (and no further Act was passed on the subject), should make such orders as to him should seem fit for the administration of these trusts. Accordingly the Lord Chancellor appointed a Board of Trustees by name in each borough, for the administration of the municipal charities; and the number of these trustees in each borough, with the value of the charities at their disposal, will appear from the following abstract of the Return No. 266, Sess. 1839. The charities mentioned in the corporation accounts, to the amount of 16,496*l.* 8*s.* 11½*d.*, are contributions from the borough funds to charitable objects.

TABLE XV.—*Cities and Boroughs in which Trustees for Municipal Charities have been appointed by the Lord Chancellor, and the Amount of Income which came to the Receipt of each Board, during the Year 1837.*

Name of Borough.	Number of Trustees for Municipal Charities.	Income derived from the whole of the Charities during the Year 1837.			Name of Borough.	Number of Trustees for Municipal Charities.	Income derived from the whole of the Charities during the Year 1837.		
		£.	s.	d.			£.	s.	d.
Abingdon . . .	16	291	18	4	Brought forward	..	50,829	13	9
Andover . . .	10	79	0	0	Launceston . . .	7	32	0	0
Banbury . . .	9	298	0	3	Lancaster . . .	22	775	9	0
Barnstable . . .	9	432	11	7	Leicester . . .	30	1,457	16	5
Basingstoke . . .	13	440	4	10	Lichfield . . .	17	582	1	3
Bath . . .	17	469	9	1	Lincoln . . .	15	1,286	1	10
Beccles . . .	13	152	0	0	Louth . . .	9
Beverley . . .	19	1,885	6	5	Ludlow . . .	17
Bewdley . . .	12	45	17	0	Maidstone . . .	13	316	2	7
Boston . . .	15	2,427	0	8	Maidenhead . . .	7	174	0	0
Bridport . . .	11	98	8	6½	Marlborough . . .	13	2	0	0
Bridgenorth . . .	12	260	2	6	Morpeth . . .	7	220	9	3
Bridgewater . . .	15	230	16	6	Newbury . . .	17	3,100	5	7
Bristol . . .	21	11,696	6	3	Newark-upon-Trent	22	452	8	9
Buckingham . . .	15	Newport . . .	15
Bury St. Edmunds	13	129	18	9	Norwich . . .	29	9,087	11	0
Cambridge . . .	13	1,123	15	8	Norhampton . . .	31	5,572	12	3½
Canterbury . . .	12	917	2	8	Nottingham . . .	15	1,323	13	5
Cardiff . . .	14	52	0	0	Oxford . . .	25
Chester . . .	21	621	1	0	Pembroke . . .	15
Chesterfield . . .	14	733	9	11	Plymouth . . .	12	439	9	5
Chipping Wycombe	14	Poole . . .	11
Chipping Norton . . .	14	141	7	11	Reading . . .	34	2,812	4	5
Chippenharn . . .	13	57	19	0	Ripon . . .	9	104	3	0
Congleton . . .	9	Rochester . . .	17	2,528	14	7
Coventry . . .	38	7,397	8	0	Saffron Walden . . .	15	1,142	0	0
Devises . . .	15	155	7	0	St. Albans . . .	13
Daventry . . .	11	Salisbury . . .	23	562	16	8
Doncaster . . .	15	Sandwich . . .	15	1,015	5	10
Dorchester . . .	6	195	8	2	Scarborough . . .	8	42	0	0
Dover . . .	11	282	13	8	Shrewsbury . . .	22	1,579	3	1
Durham . . .	17	386	5	0	Southampton . . .	15	427	7	7
East Retford . . .	15	426	1	3	South Molton . . .	11
Exeter . . .	31	4,520	0	5	Stafford . . .	17	424	15	10
Eye . . .	7	192	1	11	Stamford . . .	13	1,176	5	2½
Faversham . . .	15	1,595	19	7	Stratford-upon-Avon	15	357	13	4
Folkestone . . .	9	93	7	6	Sudbury . . .	15	179	12	9½
Gloucester . . .	21	2,492	18	4½	Tamworth . . .	9	79	1	7
Great Yarmouth . . .	15	702	19	4	Tenby . . .	9
Grantham . . .	15	878	4	10½	Tewkesbury . . .	13	399	0	6
Guildford . . .	15	369	16	4	Thetford . . .	7	911	6	6
Haverfordwest . . .	7	101	5	0	Tiverton . . .	15	182	18	2
Hastings . . .	13	565	11	10	Truro . . .	24	137	1	4
Hereford . . .	19	1,725	19	3½	Wallingford . . .	13
Hythe . . .	3	393	2	8	Walsall . . .	9	66	16	0
Ipawich . . .	22	1,735	11	6	Warwick . . .	21	1,283	18	6
Kidderminster . . .	11	11	0	0	Wells . . .	9	1,853	2	8
King's Lynn . . .	19	1,639	3	4	Weymouth . . .	15	153	13	0
Kingston-upon-Thames . . .	13	964	1	2	Windsor . . .	11	465	0	3
Kingston-upon-Hull	19	1,104	4	6	Worcester . . .	15	1,622	11	4
Kirby Kendal . . .	11	317	7	0	York . . .	13	31	10	0
Carried forward	..	£50,829	13	9	Total	£95,189	7	6½

For the purpose of comparing the public expenditure of the boroughs with that of the parishes and counties, it may be mentioned that, in 1838, the poor's-rates amounted to 5,186,389*l.*, of which 683,865*l.* was for county-rates; and that in the following year, 1839, the highway-rates were 1,169,891*l.*, and the church-rates 506,812*l.* Of the institutions under which these sums are locally levied and expended, there may occur some future opportunity of presenting a statistical account, in continuation of the present.

Report of the Committee on Hospital Statistics.

THE present Report, which has been drawn up by a Committee of the Council of the Statistical Society of London, appointed in December, 1840, "to consider the best means of obtaining periodical enumerations of the patients in the London Hospitals," has been approved and adopted by the Council, and has been ordered to be published in the Society's journal, and to be printed for circulation amongst the supporters and authorities of the various medical charities of the metropolis. The objects of the Council in appointing the Committee will be sufficiently apparent after a perusal of the Report itself. The Committee is still engaged in inquiries connected with the vital statistics of the hospitals, and will be happy to receive information or suggestions from gentlemen interested in such matters, in furtherance of the purposes of their appointment.

Population of the Hospitals.—The metropolis contains ten general hospitals, besides the fever hospital, the small-pox hospital, the lock hospital, the hospital for seamen, several lying-in hospitals, and lunatic asylums.

A Return of the Number of Patients in the under-mentioned London Hospitals, and of the other Persons belonging to the respective Establishments, or resident on the night of the 6—7th of June, (From the return made by the Officers to the Census Commissioners.)

Name of Hospital.	Number of Patients, June 7, 1841.			Number of Persons employed in the Establishment or Resident on June 7, 1841.			Grand Total.	Deaths in 1839.
	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.		
St. George's . .	178	134	312	10	46	56	368	250
Westminster . .	68	75	143	6	22	28	171	95
Middlesex . . .	109	103	212	9	36	45	257	156
Charing-cross . .	43	46	89	6	13	19	108	102
King's College . .	56	45	101	6	20	26	127	..
University College.	56	45	101	9	15	24	125	194
Fever	14	15	29	1	10	11	40	161
Small-pox . . .	15	10	25	2	7	9	34	28
London	205	108	313	11	60	71	384	311
St. Bartholomew's .	194	192	386	22	125	147	533	361
Guy's	251	192	443	49	161	210	653	219
St. Thomas's . . .	125	116	241	22	81	103	344	244
Dreadnought . . .	168	..	168	17	9	26	194	110
Total	1482	1081	2563	170	605	775	3338	2231

The lying-in hospitals, lock hospital, and lunatic asylums, have not been included in the present inquiry.

The population of the hospitals is shown in the preceding table, for the particulars of which we are indebted to the kindness of the Census Commissioners. It must be borne in mind that the number of patients in individual hospitals fluctuates, and that it is probably not quite so great in summer, when the census was taken, as in winter. With these qualifications the table represents pretty accurately the distribution of patients, and the proportion of males and females in the metropolitan hospitals.

The Dreadnought contained 168 male patients; the hospitals for fever, and small pox (which were not epidemic in June, 1841) 29 males, 25 females; the 10 general hospitals, 1,285 males, and 1,056 females.

As a preliminary step, it appeared to your Committee desirable to obtain an enumeration of all the patients in the London hospitals. A circular was accordingly addressed to some of the medical officers who had evinced an interest in statistics; and blank forms were forwarded to all who expressed themselves favourable to the objects of the inquiry. Returns were finally obtained from the Westminster, Middlesex, Charing-cross, King's College, University College, London, and Dreadnought, hospitals, for which we are indebted to Dr. Watson, Dr. Burne, Dr. Golding, Dr. Guy, Dr. Walshe, T. Blizard Curling, Esq., and G. Busk, Esq.; who either performed the enumerations themselves, or selected intelligent gentlemen, quite competent to the task.

We were not fortunate enough to procure returns for the first enumeration from St. George's, Bartholomew's, St. Thomas's, or Guy's hospitals, but from the information which we have received, we have every reason to believe that the medical officers and governors of the two former hospitals will contribute to the next inquiry, and we hope that the governors and medical officers of Guy's and St. Thomas's may be induced to follow their example.

The 7 hospitals from which we have obtained returns, contained 1,127 in-patients, on June 1st, 1841; and 1,214 in-patients in the first week of January, 1842. The increase (7·7 per cent.) may be ascribed to the winter season.

In the 6 general hospitals (the Dreadnought being excluded), the proportion of males was 57 in 100 patients.

The following was the form of schedule employed in the enumeration; and it will be evident that the number of important heads which it embraces, may be classified in a great variety of ways, each of which would furnish important information.*

Name.	Sex. M. or F.	Married, Single, or Widowed.	Occupation.	Age.	Disease.	How long ill. before Admission.	How long in Hospital.

* A copy of the form for enumeration, as finally determined upon, will be printed in a future number of the Journal.

The time has not yet come for the final arrangement of the facts, or for the deduction of general results; but in the present stage, we hope to be able to indicate the utility of the inquiry, its general scope, and the important objects which it aims at accomplishing.

Distribution of Sex, Age, and Disease, with duration and results.—For the present we shall omit the Dreadnought, as that hospital is exclusively devoted to the reception of sailors.

The returns show (1.) the number of persons in the hospitals of different occupations; (2.) the number of each sex suffering from the several diseases at different ages; (3.) the period of the several diseases in which patients are admitted; and (4.) the time that they remain under treatment.

The Table A. shows the ages of the patients, and their diseases; without distinguishing the sexes, which are, however, separated in the accompanying abstracts. In making these illustrative abstracts, the same forms have been employed as are in use for classifying the causes of death at the General Register Office. In the ultimate arrangement, several other diseases, such as those of the skin, will require separate heads.

We subjoin some of the more common diseases, comprising 697 cases, which it will be seen are proportions of the total number of cases of all kinds (1,013) in the abstracts. As few children are admitted into the hospitals, all under the age of 15 are omitted.

Ages of the Patients suffering from some of the more Common Diseases, in the London Hospitals, January, 1842.

Diseases.	Ages.										Total.
	15 to 20	20 to 25	25 to 30	30 to 35	35 to 40	40 to 45	45 to 50	50 to 60	60 to 70	70	
Typhus	3	5	3	1	..	2	14
Erysipelas	1	1	1	1	2	3	..	5	14
Syphilis	15	10	5	7	2	3	1	..	1	..	44
Paralysis	2	3	1	4	1	3	1	5	1	1	22
Epilepsy	6	8	1	1	1	17
Bronchitis	5	6	3	3	4	4	10	7	1	44*
Pleurisy	1	1	..	1	1	4
Pneumonia	3	2	..	1	6
Consumption	2	9	6	3	8	6	2	2	38
Diseases of Heart	2	6	3	3	5	2	..	6	1	..	28
Diabetes	1	1	1	3
Stone	1	3	1	5
Disease of Kidneys	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	9
Stricture	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	11
Mis-menstruation	12	7	4	..	1	24
Rheumatism	5	13	15	8	12	6	5	12	2	..	78
Arthritis and Diseases of Joints	20	10	12	7	6	4	3	2	64
Scrofula	2	8	4	1	2	1	18
Ulcers	4	7	6	5	2	5	8	7	9	2	55
Carcinoma	1	..	7	1	1	2	3	4	2	21
Wounds, Fractures, and Burns	20	18	23	25	15	20	14	18	20	7	180

* Age of one person not stated.

General Remark.—The constant number of patients afflicted with any given disease, depends upon its duration, as well as upon the

numbers attacked; so that where a disease is twice as long as another, although the same number were attacked, twice as many may be expected to be in hospital. Hence the proportion of cases of different diseases *in hospital*, and the proportion of cases *admitted*, will differ in the ratio of the average term of residence. Generally speaking, the proportion of the various cases in hospitals will agree with those of equal severity in the adult population out of doors; but there are exceptions; the diseases incident to childbirth, typhus, and consumption, are rarely treated in the general hospitals, while fractures, wounds, urinary, and a few other diseases are collected in excess.

An abstract of the deaths, and causes of death at different ages, in the London hospitals (1839), was given in the Appendix to the Registrar General's last report; of which we shall avail ourselves, to show the nature of a few of the results deducible from mere enumerations, and the registers of the causes of death. The abstract of *deaths* was derived from all the hospitals, comprising about $2\frac{1}{2}$ times as many patients as were enumerated for us; we shall therefore multiply our facts by 2.5, which will enable us to use them as illustrations. And we may state once for all, that they are to be considered nothing more.

Illustrations.—1. A comparison of the annual number of *deaths* from each disease, with the average numbers *labouring under the same disease*, shows the mortality in a given time (a year), in the various diseases. Thus if there were 95 consumptive persons on an average in the hospitals, 342 died in the year; 360 per cent. annually, 36 per cent. in $36\frac{1}{2}$ days, or 1 per cent. daily. A physician who had on an average 100 consumptive patients under his care, in the advanced stage of the disease, may at this rate expect that 1 would die daily.

Further Examples—(TABLE B.)

	Diseases.	Died in the Hospitals in One Year. (Reg. - Gen. Report.)	Average Numbers Sick, (deduced from Table A.)	Annual Deaths per cent.	Constantly Sick to 100 Annual Deaths.
1	Consumption	342	95	360	28
2	Pneumonia	47	15	313	32
3	Apoplexy	39	17	229	44
4	{Injuries, and the effects of Accidents}	390	450	87	115
5	Bronchitis	88	111	79	126
6	Paralysis	42	55	76	131
7	Syphilis	13	110	12	846
	All Diseases.	2231	enumerated 2462	91	110

It appears that in the general hospitals of the Metropolis, 91 deaths occur annually for every 100 patients which they hold. An hospital which contains 110 patients yields 100 deaths. Let us suppose, for a moment, the patients labouring under consumption, pneumonia, &c. in *separate* hospitals, each containing 100 patients, the place of the dying being constantly filled up by new patients, then we shall have, according to the last column but one (Table B.), at the hospital, for consumption, 360 deaths; for pneumonia, 313 deaths; for accidents, 87 deaths; for

bronchitis and catarrh, 79 deaths; for paralysis, 76 deaths; for syphilis, 12 deaths:—or, according to the last column (Table B.), 100 deaths would occur annually in an hospital for the consumptive, containing 28 occupied beds; in an hospital for accidents containing 115 beds; and in an hospital for syphilis containing 846 beds. The results are obtained with the same facility by the enumeration we propose, whether the diseases be treated in the same or in different hospitals.

An analysis of this kind can be made from 5 or 10 enumerations. It will show, in different diseases, the relative force of mortality, which will no doubt be found to be regulated by a determined law.

2. The mortality, in a unit of time, at each age, from the different diseases, may be calculated from the enumeration of the patients, and the registered deaths.

We give the mortality from all causes as an example: the same method may be applied to each disease separately.

Ages.	Actual Numbers enumerated, multiplied by 2·5.	Deaths in One Year.	Annual Rate of Mortality per cent.
20—30	687	449	65
30—40	485	433	89
40—50	355	423	119
50—60	247	312	126
60—70	142	241	170

It has been shown by Mr. Edmonds, and others, that the mortality in the entire population, and in all cases of disease, increases about 34 per cent. (one-third) every 10 years of age after puberty. It appears also, from observations in Friendly Societies, that the sick time increases with age at the same rate; whence it would follow that the liability to an attack of sickness was the same at all ages from 15 to 60; that the duration of attacks increased 34 per cent. every 10 years; that the mortality of attacks increased 34 per cent. every 10 years; and consequently that the mortality in a unit of sick time (a week for instance) from the same disease, was uniformly the same at all ages (or at least from 15 to 60, to which the observations have hitherto been confined). The enumerations will furnish the means of directly determining the latter point.

3. The Tables B. C. show the number of patients *living at every stage* of the different diseases, (so far as it could be ascertained.) at the time the enumeration was made. If the numbers who *recovered and died at the same periods* were abstracted, the rates of mortality and recovery, at the several stages of all diseases, could be determined.

Our information is here deficient; we must refer for examples to other sources.

To render the information complete, a corresponding annual abstract should be made of all the *cases treated*, showing the numbers in each disease discharged, dead, cured, relieved, or otherwise, from all the hospitals.

The great desideratum, viz., the average and inevitable loss of life by each disease as yet unknown, is obtainable only from such reports of hospitals, &c.—To ascertain the mortality and duration of diseases left to

nature, has been considered by some persons a great desideratum. They want this datum, they say, as a starting point. They would determine the average duration, and the number of deaths in 1,000 cases of natural small-pox: they would then compare the results with the results of 1,000 cases treated with all the appliances of medical art; or, according to the various methods of treatment adopted by the medical schools. It is scarcely necessary to observe that the natural mortality and duration of diseases can never be supplied. The thing can never be even contemplated. No one would dare to suggest that hundreds or thousands of patients should be deprived of the aid, solace, and counsels of medical art; which has been cultivated for centuries by a numerous profession, containing in its ranks many persons of the greatest scientific attainments, and a few men of the most consummate genius. We cannot ask patients to allow the stone to torment them, or to incur the natural risks of loss of blood, unreduced ruptures, broken bones, inflammations, in order to enable speculating sceptics to count how many of them will die.

Without some standard of comparison, however, medical science can make very little further progress. It will be impossible to determine accurately the relative value of different methods of treatment now in use; or of any new remedies and methods of treatment, which may be discovered. Medicine will always be open to unjust charges of inutility, and the public health will be the sport of fashion, the perilous innovations of empirics, and superficial theorists.

It is fortunate, under these circumstances, that the standard required, will be furnished by the average mortality and duration of cases *under the present system of treatment*. In the aggregate results deduced from the thousands of cases treated in the hospitals, accidental irregularities will be destroyed; and the average rate of mortality and recovery in each disease, at each age, and at each stage of disease, will be determined. With this standard any other class of similar cases, treated differently, may be compared. The collection and analysis of a few important, easily observable facts, to which the measures of number and time can be applied, will, it is evident, not interfere with, but will rather facilitate individual research, or any special and more extended inquiry undertaken by particular institutions.

The importance of applying the instruments and methods of inquiry which have enriched the exact sciences to vital phenomena is generally admitted; and the London hospitals will, it may naturally be expected, take the lead, in this as well as in other departments of medicine. Should they act in an isolated manner, and independently of each other, or should they register the observations on a uniform system, and throw them into a common stock, to be arranged in the order which may appear, on due consideration, best calculated to yield the important results to which we have above adverted? The advantages of the latter proceeding, in a statistical point of view, are so obvious, that your committee have invited the medical officers to a conference, and have submitted to them the following propositions:—

(1.) To have authentic registers of cases kept in a form which is now under consideration.

(2.) The first registers to be commenced on January 1st, 1843, and to terminate on the 31st December. To comprise all the patients discharged during the year.

(3.) The first annual abstract to be made under the direction of a joint committee, named by the Council of the Statistical Society, the Boards and the medical officers of the hospital. For this purpose, copies of the registers to be sent, at the end of each quarter, half-year, or year, to the office of the Statistical Society, where it is proposed that the committee shall meet.

(4.) The Statistical Society will supply the blank forms, for copying the registers of cases.

Example of the mode of filling up the proposed Return.

Disease—Consumption.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
No.	Occupation and Habits.	Sex.	Age.	Number of Days in Hospital.	Duration of Case in Days.		Date of Attack.	Date of Admission.	When Discharged.		Important Symptoms, Complications, or post mortem Appearances.
					When Admitted.	When Discharged.			Date.	State.	
1	Weaver	M.	41	63	65	128	1840. June 3	Aug. 7	Oct. 9	Died	Hæmoptysis, June 3. Diarrhoea, Aug. 10. P.M. Cavity in ap. lobes of left lung; ulcerations of ileum

The attack should be dated from the first unequivocal symptom of the disease. In the column for important symptoms the date of their origin may be noted.

Contractions used in the Returns.

Int., intemperate; *pp.*, pauper; *M.*, male; *F.*, female. The months—*Jan.*, *Feb.*, *Mar.*, *Apr.*, *May*, *June*, *July*, *Aug.*, *Sept.*, *Oct.*, *Nov.*, *Dec.* The year is written over, and the day under, the month, thus:— $\left. \begin{array}{c} 1831. \\ \text{Jan. } \\ 8. \end{array} \right\} \text{Recov., recovered; conv., convalescent; rel., relieved. Other contractions may be used, with an explanation, if necessary.}$

The medical officers who did your Committee the honour to meet them expressed themselves quite willing to promote these important objects. The following resolution was passed.

“Resolved, that application, by letter, be made to the Boards of the hospitals respectively, on the subject of the adoption of uniform methods of registering of cases, and that the sanction and support of the medical officers be requested to such applications; that a letter be drawn up and forwarded to the several Boards, pointing out the importance of the object in view, by the Committee in making this application; and further, that a copy of the Committee's report be sent with each application.”

It has been suggested that cases in the London hospitals will not present a fair average of the cases affecting the whole community. Your Committee admit the truth of this to the full extent. But after the example has been set in the London hospitals, your Committee are convinced that returns on the same plan could be procured from the provincial hospitals, the prisons, the poor law unions, the friendly societies, and from private practitioners. This would open a wide field of comparison, and lay the foundation of improvements in the healing art, very much calculated to alleviate human suffering, and to prolong human life.

TABLE 1.—Hospital Cases enumerated in the first week of January 1842.

Diseases.	Ages.																Total.
	1	3	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	60	70	80	?	
Small Pox
Measles
Scarlatina
Whooping Cough
Croup
Thrush	1	1	2
Diarrhoea	1	1	2
Dysentery	1	1	1	2
Cholera
Influenza
Ague
Remittent Fever
Typhus	2	3	5	3	1	..	2	16
Erysipelas	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	5	14
Syphilis	15	10	5	7	2	3	1	..	1	44
Hydrophobia
Total.	1	2	20	16	9	9	7	8	1	6	1	80
Cephalitis	1	1
Hydrocephalus
Apoplexy	1	..	1	..	2	1	1	1	7
Paralysis	1	..	2	3	1	4	1	3	1	5	1	1	23
Convulsions	1	1	2
Tetanus	1	1
Chorea	2	1	3
Epilepsy	1	6	8	1	1	1	18
Insanity	1	1
Delirium Tremens	1	1
Brain,&c.(Disease)	1	..	3	1	6	2	..	4	2	2	4	1	1	27
Total. . .	1	1	6	2	14	14	3	9	8	7	7	7	3	2	84
Laryngitis	1	2	3
Quinsey	2	..	2	4
Bronchitis	1	..	5	6	3	3	4	4	10	7	1	..	1	..	45
Pleurisy	1	1	..	1	1	4
Pneumonia	1	3	..	2	..	1	7
Hydrothorax
Asthma	1	1	2	..	2	..	1	7
Consumption	1	2	9	6	3	8	6	2	2	39
Lungs,&c.(Dis.of)	1	5	..	1	1	8
Total.	1	2	3	19	16	8	13	19	8	17	8	2	..	1	117
Pericarditis	1	..	1	2
Aneurism	1	1	2
Heart,&c.(Dis.of)	1	2	6	2	3	4	2	..	6	1	27
Total.	1	2	6	3	3	6	2	..	7	1	31
Teething
Gastritis
Enteritis	1	..	1	1	3
Peritonitis	2	..	1	3
Tuberc Mesenterica	..	1	1	2
Worms	1	1	1	3
Ascites	1	1	2
Ulceration	1	1	2
Hernia	1	1	1	2
Colic, or Ileus	2	1	..	2	..	1	4
Intussusception
Stricture	1	1
Hematemesis	1	..	1	1	3
Stomach, &c. } (Dis. of)	5	2	3	1	3	3	1	18
Pancreas
Hepatitis	1	3
Jaundice	1	3	1	1	1	1	7
Liver	1	1
Spleen
Total.	2	1	13	5	8	4	3	3	1	9	3	1	1	..	54

TABLE 1.—Hospital Cases enumerated in the first week of January, 1842.—
(Continued.)

Diseases.	Ages.																Total.
	1	3	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	60	70	80	?	
Nephritis	1	1
Ischuria
Diabetes	1	1	1	3
Cystitis	1	..	2	3
Stone	1	..	1	3	..	2	1	1	2	1	1	6
Stricture	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	11
Kidneys, &c. (Dis. of.)	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	11
Total.	3	2	3	5	7	3	3	3	4	1	1	35
Childbed	2	1	3
Parametria	1	12	7	4	..	1	25
Ovarian Dropsy
Uterus, &c. (Dis. of.)	3	5	6	3	3	3	1	1	..	1	25
Total.	1	17	13	10	3	4	3	1	1	..	1	54
Arthritis	1	5	1	2	1	1	11
Rheumatism	2	5	13	15	8	12	6	5	12	2	81
Joints, &c. (Dis. of.)	..	2	7	16	15	9	10	7	6	4	2	1	79
Total.	2	7	19	25	23	27	15	18	10	8	14	2	1	171
Carbuncle	1	1	..	1	3
Phlegmon	3	1	1	6
Ulcer	1	4	7	6	5	2	5	8	7	9	2	56
Fistula	1	2	1	2	3	9
Skin, &c. (Dis. of.)	..	2	2	5	7	3	4	6	2	..	1	..	2	34
Total.	2	2	6	12	16	11	13	5	6	9	11	12	2	107
Inflammation	1	1	2
Hemorrhage
Dropsy	1	1	2	..	1	3
Abscess	2	..	1	6	2	1	9	14
Mortification	1	1	2	..	1	5
Purpura
Scrofula	1	2	2	8	4	1	2	1	1	21
Carcinoma	1	..	7	1	1	2	3	4	2	21
Tumor	1	1	1	1	1	4
Gout
Atrophy
Debility	1	1	1	3
Malformations	2	1	3
Sudden Deaths
Total.	5	4	5	18	9	9	6	4	5	5	5	3	75
Old Age
Intemperance	1	1
Starvation
Accidents, &c. . .	1	..	11	6	20	18	23	25	15	20	14	18	20	5	2	1	139
Total. . .	1	..	11	6	20	18	23	26	15	20	14	18	20	5	2	1	209
Diseases not specified	1	1	1
Total. . .	2	5	35	47	134	151	124	106	88	85	57	99	57	17	3	3	1,003
						275		194		142							

Progress of the Two Sicilies under the Spanish Bourbons, from the Year 1734-35 to 1840. By JOHN GOODWIN, Esq., Her Majesty's Consul for Sicily.—(Continued from p. 78.)

CHAPTER IX.

REIGN OF FERDINAND II. OVER THE TWO SICILIES, FROM 1830 TO 1840.

Naples.—Population—Agriculture—Manufactures—Inland Trade—Trade with Sicily—Foreign Trade—Government—Legislature—Justice—Finances—Army and Navy—Education—The Clergy.

Sicily.—Population—The Peasantry—Agriculture—Sulphur Mines—The Sulphur Contract—Manufactures—Fisheries—Commerce—Local Government—Public Charities—Finances—Education—The Church.

Naples.—At the accession of the reigning sovereign in 1830, the inhabitants of the realm of Naples amounted to 5,732,114: at the end of 1840, they had increased to the number of 6,177,598.

The Neapolitan peasantry, who form the bulk of the population, are a rough but kind-hearted set of people, who only require to be well used and honestly treated to become good subjects and hard labourers. Hitherto their masters have dealt with them harshly, and met with a corresponding return. In Calabria the peasants generally live in villages, whence they go forth daily to their work in the field. During nine months in the year the day labourer earns about 6s. a-week; during the other three, or during the harvest and vintage, he gets double wages. In some parts the unmarried labourer is lodged and boarded by his master; whilst the married man has a cottage rent-free, about 4d. a-day, and a monthly allowance of Indian corn, wine, and oil.

In the capital and in large towns, artisans and mechanics are paid partly by the job and partly by the day, according to the custom of their several trades. Thus, in the woollen manufacture, the weaver is paid about 12s. for a piece of cloth, 45 yards long by 1½ yard wide. In the silk manufacture, on the other hand, the weaver is paid by time, and earns from 2s. to 2s. 6d. a-day, according to circumstances. The latter is the usual rate of a mechanic's wages in the capital; in the country, the rate is much lower.

The Neapolitan territory is said to be thus appropriated to the purposes of agriculture.

	Square miles.
Corn Lands	12,000
Vineyards	1,000
Woods and Olive grounds	3,000
Gardens and Orchards	500
Pastures and Sheep-walks	6,500
Wastes	9,000
Total Area	32,000

The chief products of husbandry are corn, wine, oil, cotton, flax, hemp, liquorice-paste, silk, and wool.

The average crop of wheat is 5,500,000 imperial quarters, and the yearly consumption about 5,000,000 quarters, being at the rate of about four-fifths of a quarter for each inhabitant; but in abundant harvests the crop often amounts to nearly 10,000,000 quarters. The annual produce of Indian corn (the second element of public consumption,) is about 500,000

imperial quarters. The yearly production of wine is about 400,000 pipes, the principal part of which is consumed at home. About 13,000 pipes are made into brandy at the distilleries near the capital, and about 250 tons of argols and cream of tartar are prepared for foreign markets. —About 70,000 tuns of olive oil are expressed yearly, half of which is consumed at home. Of the quantity exported, the greater part is produced in Apulia and Calabria. In the former province the chief loading place is Gallipoli, which supplies England, Holland, and the north of Europe with clarified oils for the use of the woollen manufactures. The yearly crop of cotton is about 10,000 tons. The annual production of raw silk is about 1,000,000 lbs., of which about half is consumed at home. The Apulian wool is of so coarse and harsh a quality as to require to be mixed with Merino (a breed of which sheep is domesticated in Abruzzo,) or with foreign staples, before it can be woven into cloth of even moderate fineness.

The chief manufactures are those of woollens, leather, silks, cottons, paper, soap, glass, earthenware, steel, and iron. The woollen factories produce yearly about 6,000 pieces of fine cloth for the markets of Naples and Palermo, and from 60 to 80,000 pieces of coarse cloth for the use of the peasantry and fishermen. The tanneries render yearly 8,000 bales of leather, the quality of which depends much on the mode of preparation. Where bark is used, the leather is good and lasting: but where myrtle leaves are substituted, the product is spongy and rotten. The yearly production of organzine and sewing silk is about 145,000 lbs., whereof 120,000 lbs. are exported. Three hundred looms are commonly employed in the weaving of silks, chiefly for home consumption. The principal seat of this manufacture is Caserta, where 700 or 800 weavers produce annually from 2,000 to 3,000 pieces of silk, somewhat inferior to the French and English.

The cotton manufacture in both its branches is principally in the hands of Swiss and German capitalists. The spinning mills are those of David Vonwiller and Co., of Salerno, and of Escher and Co., of the same place; of Egg, at Piedimonte, and of Mayer and Zollinger, at Scafati. These mills, where the cotton spun is the growth of Naples and Sicily, contain 29,500 spindles, which produce yearly 9,900 cantars (1,940,000 lbs.) of yarn, from No. 3 to No. 32 English. At Vonwiller's, 9,000 spindles, moved by steam and water power, produce yearly 3,000 cantars (588,000 lbs.) of yarn, from No. 3 to No. 30 English. At Escher's, 10,000 spindles moved by water, produce yearly 3,000 cantars (588,000 lbs.) of yarn, from No. 6 to No. 30 English. At Eggs, 7,500 spindles, moved by water, produce yearly 2,700 cantars (529,200 lbs.) of yarn, from No. 3 to No. 32 English. At Mayer and Zollinger, 3,000 spindles, moved by steam, produce yearly 1,200 cantars (235,200 lbs.) of yarn, from No. 3 to No. 18.

At all these factories the hours of labour are 13 daily. At Vonwiller's factory, the number of work-people is 200, viz., 100 men, 30 women, and 70 children. At Escher's, the number is 300, viz., 150 men, 50 women, and 100 children. The wages of labour are the same at both, viz., for men, from 35 to 45 grains a-day, (1s. 2d. to 1s. 6d.,) women from 20 to 25 grains, (8d. to 10d.,) children from 12 to 18 (5d. to 7d.)

The weaving mills are those of Schläpper, Wenner, and Co. of

Salerno and Angri, Egg of Piedimonte, Mayer and Zollinger of Scafati, and Angelo, Avelloni, and Co. of the same place. At these mills, 96,000 pieces of 10 canes (23½ yards) of cotton cloth are produced yearly for dying and printing. At Schläpper, Wenner, and Co. 140 power looms, moved by steam, and 250 hand looms, with the fly shuttle, produce yearly from 1,000 cantars (196,000 lbs.) of English yarn, Nos. 30 to 40, 50,000 pieces. At Egg's, 50 power looms, and 250 hand looms, with the fly shuttle, produce yearly from English yarn 25,000 pieces. At Mayer and Zollinger's, 250 hand looms, with the fly shuttle, use yearly 500 cantars (98,000 lbs.) Turkey red yarn, and produce 15,000 pieces. At Angelo, Avelloni, and Co. 6,000 pieces are produced annually from Turkey red yarn. At the last two factories the weft is of Nos. 28 to 32, and the warp of Nos. 36 to 42 English, half and half. The hours of labour at all these factories are 13 daily, as in the spinning mills.

The number of work-people employed in these factories is 2,650, viz., 620 men, 1,220 women, and 810 children. The wages of labour vary considerably.

Men earn, per diem, from 20 to 40 grains, =	8d. to 1s. 4d.
Women ,, 15 to 30 ,,	6d. to 1s.
Children ,, 4 to 20 ,,	2d. to 8d.

The foremen and overlookers, who are foreigners, both in the spinning and weaving factories, receive from 3s. 4d. to 5s. a-day.

There are besides about 8,000 hand looms, belonging to small manufacturers at Castellammare, Scafati, Angri, La Cara and Naples, of which 7,500 have the common shuttle, and 500 the fly. These produce about 500,000 pieces a-year, making, with the factory looms, a total production of 597,000 pieces.

At the above factories the bleaching is done with English powder, and the printing with Swiss and English machinery. Most of the cotton drills, nankeens, &c., which formerly came from England, are now made in Naples.

The linen manufacture gives employment to about 400 hand looms.

About 1,500 tons of malleable, and 500 tons of pig iron, are made yearly in the realm. The best iron is that made at the Satriano foundries in Calabria, from ore brought from Elba. From 300 to 400 tons are produced per annum.

The inland trade of Naples has become active since carriage roads have been constructed in all parts of the realm. The trade of the capital is much promoted by the establishment of a national bank.

The bank of the Two Sicilies is a bank of deposit and circulation, issuing transferable notes in exchange for national specie: it is likewise in some degree a Monte di Pietà, or public pawnbroking establishment, advancing money upon plate, jewels, silks, and woollens, deposited as security for loans. In one of its departments, called the Cassa di Sconto, merchants' bills, at six months' date, with three signatures, are discounted at 3½ per cent.

The coasting trade between the Two Sicilies has reached a high degree of importance since 1823, (when free trade was first established between the united countries,) as will be seen from the following abstract made in 1836.

Abstract of the yearly Trade between the Two Sicilies about the year 1836.

Articles of Exchange.	Imports from Sicily into Naples.	Exports from Naples to Sicily.
	£.	£.
1. Materials of food	237,000	109,000
2. Of clothing, building, and furnishing	148,000	270,000
3. Of general industry	38,000	75,000
Total	445,000	454,000

Weekly communication is kept up between the Two Sicilies by means of steam packets of from 160 to 240 horse-power, sailing under the national flag, which enjoys the monopoly of every branch of the Cabotage. Almost daily communication is maintained between Naples, on the one hand, and Cività Vecchia, Leghorn, Genoa, and Marseilles on the other, by national and foreign steamers of large size and powerful engines.

The foreign trade of Naples embraces eight classes of countries, viz. :

1. Great Britain and her North American, Adriatic, and Mediterranean colonies.
2. France and Algiers.
3. The Sardinian, Tuscan, and Papal States.
4. Holland, Belgium, Germany, and Austrian Italy.
5. Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Russia.
6. Greece, Tripoli, Tunis, Spain, and Portugal.
7. The United States.
8. Brazil and the States of Rio de la Plata.

The relative importance of the different branches may be gathered from the following summary of the foreign trade of Naples, the capital, in 1840 :—

Countries.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.
United States	90,586	54	90,640
Baltic, countries on the	141,733	14,692	156,425
Belgium, Germany, &c.	60,084	9,236	69,320
Brazil and States of the Rio de la Plata	12,214	..	12,214
France and Colonies	200,109	304,337	504,446
Great Britain and Colonies	802,176	123,949	926,125
Italian States	191,711	158,691	350,402
Mediterranean countries	28,232	1,631	29,863
Total	1,526,845	612,590	2,139,435

The articles of exchange will be found in the following tables of exports and imports :—

Statement of the Value of Articles exported from the City of Naples, distinguishing the Countries to which the same were exported, in the year 1840.

Articles.	United States.	The Baltic.	Belgium and Germany.	France.	Great Britain and Colonies.	Italian States.	Mediterranean Countries.	Total.
Argols and cream of tartar	£.	£. 1,152	£.	£. 2,592	£. 12,812	£. 1,560	£.	£. 18,116
Coral	42	..	569	..	611
Corr, grain, and pulse	11	..	10,233	..	10,244
Essences	6,000	53,800	17,295	19,510	..	96,605
Fruits, dry	..	2,655	..	9,252	1,147	2,445	48	15,601
Gloves	54	80	4	642	236	9,836	..	10,798
Hemp	6,723	..	559	202	7,484
Hoops and staves	312	..	5	2	319
Lemon juice	1,831	..	43	..	1,874
Linseed	..	60	267	11,907	5,509	125	..	17,868
Liquorice paste	..	5,134	2,028	18,387	9,606	1,982	7	37,144
Macaroni	..	17	67	425	292	322	120	1,243
Olive oil	..	78	12	11,552	30	18,746	944	31,362
Rags	1,868	..	1,868
Silks {	150,159	46,039	12,979	..	209,177
	..	11	..	9,049	..	41,022	..	50,082
Skins {	568	..	568
	5,080	505	4,857	..	10,442
Tallow	..	400	282	1,560	1,802	800	..	4,844
Wine and spirits	..	2,788	276	1,312	7,025	4,344	182	15,937
Wool	..	1,592	260	16,934	17,124	16,359	..	52,269
Miscellaneous	..	715	40	2,767	4,527	9,959	126	18,134
Total.	54	14,692	9,236	304,337	123,949	158,691	1,631	612,590

Statement of the Value of Articles imported into the City of Naples, in the

Articles.		United States	The Baltic.	Belgium and Germany.
		£.	£.	£.
Colonial Produce.	Cochineal	7,200
	Cocoa	1,925
	Coffee	2,046	440	1,005
	Indigo
	Pepper	122
	Rum
	Sugar and Molasses	78,936	106,788	491
	Tea
	Woods	357	..	807
	Cottons
Manufactures.	Cotton yarn	749
	Cotton mixed with linen & wool	2,912
	Earthenware and glass	20
	Fancy goods	30	874
	Hardwares	2,619
	Linens	4
	Silks	39,990
	Woollens	750
	Brass	316
	Coals	1,088
Miscellaneous.	Copper
	Drugs and colours	22,556	..
	Fish, salted	106
	Hides	1,300	480
	Iron	140
	Lead
	Leather	10,619	..
	Pitch and tar	5,338
	Steel	28
	Tin plates and bars	2,043
Total		90,586	141,733	60,084

Foreign goods are imported into Naples under the English, French, Spanish, and Sicilian flags. Under the last mentioned all goods are imported that come from *non-privileged* countries, i. e. from all others than England, France, and Spain, which, by commercial treaties, enjoy a reduction of 10 per cent. upon duties, as already explained.

About two-thirds of the domestic produce are exported under the national flag; the remainder goes abroad under flags of other nations. Of olive oil two-fifteenths only are shipped under foreign flags.

The building of merchant ships, promoted by the abundance of materials and the cheapness of workmanship, and encouraged by the granting of bounties for Baltic and Indian voyages,* has made great progress within

* The institution of bounties has enriched importers and foreigners at the cost of the Sicilian public. In 1837 premiums were paid by the treasury of Naples on 11 Baltic or German Ocean, and six Indian, or rather American, voyages, amounting to 80,000 ducats, (13,333*l.*) of which sum one part went to the importing merchants, and the other to the exporting countries in the shape of extra taxes on the flag, and

distinguishing the Countries from which the same were imported, year 1840.

Brazil and States of the Rio de la Plata.	France.	Great Britain and Colonies.	Italian States.	Mediterranean Countries.	Total.
£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
..	1,251	998	805	..	10,254
..	242	1,176	5,758	..	9,101
546	4,037
..	4,171	33,887	15,099	..	53,157
..	660	258	6,024	3,826	10,890
112	84	2,492	1,944	..	4,632
9,936	3,970	13,124	2,438	5,916	221,599
..	119	156	298	..	573
..	3,929	75	1,257	..	5,618
..	19,923	134,980	46,589	445	202,744
..	218	157,223	3,513	..	160,954
..	2,918	10,974	3,766	202	18,609
..	1,652	1,930	771	..	7,265
..	2,644	100	120	..	2,884
..	4,319	53,000	8,704	..	66,927
..	3,676	19,938	598	..	26,831
..	46,477	1,761	1,489	..	49,731
..	51,348	131,111	38,018	1,364	261,831
..	730	1,480
..	2,131	4,479	6,926
..	285	3,975	1,495	..	6,843
..	549	3,245	4,508	..	8,302
..	5,520	113,638	342	5,860	147,916
900	10,532	31,900	14,150	583	58,171
..	1,339	53,712	442	..	57,273
..	5,466	..	854	9,078	15,538
720	19,512	2,394	8,802	..	31,428
..	296	3,346	2,266	..	16,527
..	128	416	5,882
..	264	5,229	945	..	6,466
..	1,368	8,842	16,312	168	28,733
..	4,388	7,817	4,404	790	17,723
12,214	200,109	802,176	191,711	28,232	1,526,845

the last twenty years. In 1824 the total capacity of the Neapolitan marine was about 8,000 tons: in 1832 it had reached 99,800: and in 1837 it amounted to 150,634. In the latter year the number of vessels was 7,800, the tonnage of which averaged somewhat less than 20 tons each. Naples can boast of only 10 or 12 coppered ships of moderate burden.

As the Abruzzi, Naples, and Calabria produce timber, hemp, and iron respectively; and as workmen's wages are unusually low, good strong vessels may be built and fitted out for about 10 guineas a ton, or from 25 to 30 per cent. below the cost in the Thames. Manned with frugal Neapolitans, who are paid by the *lay* or shares of the freight, these

extra duties on the imports from Naples. The value of the freights thus obtained for the Neapolitan marine was about 26,000 ducats, or one-third of the premiums paid out of the public purse. No benefit was reaped by the public consumer. The price of sugar, for instance, imported from the United States of America (which are included under the name of the Indies) was not lowered one farthing in the pound.

vessels sail cheaper than British bottoms, the crews of which are paid by the month, and find insurance at Naples and Messina on lower terms than are asked for British vessels at Lloyd's, there being no stamp duty in the Sicilies on policies of insurance. The Neapolitan and Sicilian masters, if less hardy and daring than the British, are more careful of their vessels and cargoes, upon which account they are often preferred by fruit merchants and others for voyages from the Mediterranean to the United Kingdom and the north of Europe.

The state of public industry naturally leads to the constitution of that political body by which the progress of the useful arts is furthered or kept back. The kingdom of the Two Sicilies is governed by an absolute monarch, in whose person the legislative and executive functions are placed as in a centre. The will and pleasure of the sovereign is divulged officially by laws, decrees, regulations, and rescripts. A *law* is made by the sovereign for general purposes. The draft of a law is first laid before the consulta of state, then brought before the council of state, of which the king is the head, and lastly, is made into a law of the land, in which shape it is put into force by a minister of state. A *decree* is made by the king to carry the principle of a law into full effect, at the instance of the minister under whose care and attention the law particularly comes. A *regulation* is made by a minister of state for the better execution of a law or decree. A *royal rescript* is a decision clearing up doubts as to the meaning of decrees, which proceeds from the king in council.

The principal branches of government are the Ordinary Council of State, the Council of Ministers, the offices of President of the Council of State, the Ministries for Foreign Affairs, Grace, and Justice, Ecclesiastical Affairs, Finances, the Interior, War and Marine, and Police, and the General Consulta of the kingdom.

The last department embraces two sections or particular consulte; one for the affairs of Naples, consisting of sixteen Neapolitans, and one for those of Sicily, consisting of eight Sicilians. The united sections compose a general consulta for the common concerns of both divisions of the kingdom. The principle of *separate rights* laid down in the "Second Caserta Decree," of 1816, having given place to the principle of *common possession*, set forth in a Naples' decree of 31st October, 1837, the subjects of both realms are equally eligible to all civil and ecclesiastical offices. The Sicilians are to hold as many places in Naples as the Neapolitans may hold in Sicily. The great offices of state are not subject to numerical regulation.

The laws of the kingdom are embodied in a code, call the Code of the Two Sicilies, the parts of which are five, namely—

I. Civil laws. II. Penal laws. III. Laws of procedure in civil causes. IV. Laws of procedure in criminal causes. V. Laws of exception in commercial affairs.

The judges by whom these laws are administered are appointed and paid by the king, who has established a scale of rank, in which every magistrate finds his proper place.

A conciliatore, taken from among the principal householders, and recommended by the decurionate to the king, exercises authority in every *municipio* to settle petty quarrels at the instance of the disputants. A *re of circondario*, resident in every country town and in every quarter

of the chief cities, acts as a civil and criminal authority. A judge of instruction is stationed in every district for the arrest and prosecution of criminal offenders. Tribunals of commerce, whose decisions are final in certain cases, are established in all the principal cities. A civil tribunal in every province pronounces judgment in the first instance in causes of limited value, and admits appeals from minor authorities, whose sentences it reverses or confirms.

A criminal great court, established in every province, decides in the first and last instance in criminal causes, and receives appeals against sentences of judges of circondario. Supreme courts of justice in Naples and Palermo are appeal courts from all tribunals, whether civil or criminal, by which all judges are kept under constant control.

The judicial system, however praiseworthy for the even distribution of magisterial power, is faulty in the immense number of agents required for its daily working. In Naples there are no less than 800 judges and assistants; in Sicily there are 250. They receive from 40*l.* a-year, the stipend of a judge of circondario, to 66*l.*, the net salary of the president of the supreme court. The machine works amiss for the public. From the excess in the number of the judges a large body of well-educated men are drawn away from productive, and turned to unproductive occupations; and, further, from the smallness of the salaries, a multitude of magistrates, who, if well paid, would probably act uprightly, are tempted by sheer necessity to act dishonestly.

The interior of the kingdom is governed by a body of civil officers, subject to the ministers at Naples. This department is called the civil administration of provinces, districts, and communes. The Neapolitan dominions are divided into 15 provinces, viz., Naples, Terra di Lavoro, Principato Citra, Principato Ultra, Capitanata, Basilicata, Molise, Terra di Bari, Terra d'Otranto, Abruzzo Citra, Primo Abruzzo Ultra, Secondo Abruzzo Ultra, Calabria Citra, Prima Calabria Ultra, and Seconda Calabria Ultra. Every province is divided into districts, and every district is distributed into *communes* or townships.

The Sicilian dominions are divided into seven valli, viz., those of Palermo, Messina, Catania, Noti, Girgenti, Trapani, and Caltanissetta.

The subdivision and distribution of the valli are the same with those of the provinces. The province or valle is governed by an intendente, the district by a sub-intendente, and the commune by a syndic. The intendente presides over every department of the provincial administration, and regulates certain branches of the military force. The publication of the laws and decrees, the inspection of public works, and the superintendence of local authorities, are but a few of the many duties assigned to this eminent functionary. The sub-intendente is to the district, and the syndic to the commune, what the intendente is to the province or valle. The intendente is the head of a council of intendency and of a provincial council; the sub-intendente is the head of a district council, and the syndic that of a decurionate. The council of intendency, which regulates all affairs, and decides all suits concerning the province or valle, consists of from three to five members, who are appointed by the King. The provincial council, which examines the accounts of the district, and frames the provincial budget, is composed of from 15 to 20 landholders, who meet once a year and sit for 20 days.

The district council, authorised to lay proposals on behalf of the district

before the provincial council, meets once a year and sits for 15 days. The decurionate assembles once a month to discuss the affairs of the commune. The civil administration is so constituted, that a chain of correspondence is kept up between the syndic of every commune and the minister of the interior, through the intendente and sub-intendente. This theoretical advantage is accompanied by a practical inconvenience. Communal and district magistrates, who, if left to themselves, would act promptly and vigorously on occasions of danger, often do nothing at all, from being obliged to consult their superiors before they take a decisive step.

The revenue of the kingdom is derived from five principal sources, viz.—I. Direct taxes. II. Indirect taxes. III. Miscellaneous branches. IV. Petty receipts; and, V. Contributions from Sicily.

I. The direct taxes consist of the land tax and the tax on grinding corn. The former, or *fondiaría*, is levied upon the net rental of all lands, houses, mills, and barns on an average of 10 years, at $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The latter, or *macino*, is levied upon corn ground at the mill, at the rate of about 3s. 2d. a quarter.

II. The indirect taxes consist of the produce of the customs, the navigation dues, the consumption duties, and the royal monopolies of salt, tobacco, gunpowder, playing cards, and snow.

III. The miscellaneous branches consist of the registration and stamps, the lottery, the post office, the mint, the united branches of the sinking fund endowment and the public demesne, the woods and forests, and the *crociata* or sale of indulgences.

IV. The petty receipts consist of deductions from salaries, fees of office and petty perquisites.

V. The contribution from Sicily consists of the Sicilian quota, or one-fourth of the general revenue, and of the Sicilian debt, payable by instalments to the Neapolitan treasury.

The public expenditure embraces the support of the royal family and that of the state departments, the management of the royal monopolies, and the interest payable to the national creditor.

The following was the budget of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies for 1832 :—

REVENUE.

	Ducats.
1. Direct taxes ;—Land-tax, and grinding	8,249,178
2. Indirect taxes ;—Customs, navigation and consumption duties, and monopolies, viz. salt, tobacco, gunpowder, saltpetre, playing cards, and snow	9,930,623
3. Miscellaneous branches ;—Registration and stamps, lottery, post office, mint, sinking fund and public demesne, roads and bridges. and <i>crociata</i>	4,050,023
4. Petty introits, and deductions from salaries, &c.	1,104,310
5. Contributions from Sicily, one quarter of public burthens, including civil list	3,117,701
Deficit	990,672
Total in ducats	27,442,507
„ sterling	£4,586,084

EXPENDITURE.

<i>Ministerial Department.</i>	<i>Ducats.</i>
Presidency of council of state	15,783
Foreign affairs	314,920
Grace and justice	714,988
Ecclesiastical affairs	40,511
Home department	1,941,425
War	6,950,000
Marine	1,410,000
Police	227,956

Finances, Royal Household, &c.

Public disbursements in general	11,395,848
Stamp administration, paper machines	36,000
Lottery expenses	14,225
Monopolies establishments	436,600
Financial administration	3,944,251
	<hr/> 15,826,924

Total in ducats 27,442,507

,, sterling £4,586,084

The *peace* establishment of the army has been fixed by the present king at 29,700 infantry, and 4,463 cavalry, making a total of 34,163; and the war establishment at 61,834 infantry, and 7,864 cavalry, making a total of 69,698. To these numbers must be added the *gensd'armerie* for both countries, amounting to 7,859 in Naples, and 372 in Sicily; the addition of which will raise the *peace* establishment to 42,394, and the war to 77,929. The expense of the *peace* establishment, in 1835, was 7,200,000 ducats, (1,200,000*l.*) But, although the *peace* establishment is 34,163, including four regiments of Swiss infantry, the effective strength is probably not more than 27,000, one-fifth of every regiment being usually wanting. The military force is recruited by a yearly conscription, to which all Neapolitans, certain classes excepted, are subject from 18 to 25 years of age. The term of service is eight years for the guards, and five years for the line. The Sicilians, who have raised two regiments of their own, are free from the law of conscription. A large proportion of the officers are not upon the muster rolls. A death vacancy among the field officers is not filled up by the promotion of a captain without strong need. The duty of the deceased is done by a captain, who receives no additional pay for doing a major's duty. In the rare occurrence of a general brevet, one-third of the officers advanced are promoted for seniority, a second third for merit, and the remainder according to the king's pleasure.

The Neapolitan navy consisted, in 1837, of 19 sail of vessels, three steamers, and about 30 gun-boats. The seamen and marines are divided into two classes—the New Levy and the *Pianta*. The men belonging to the former class are entitled to retire on full pay after serving 40 years; those who belong to the latter obtain their retirement after 27 years. The widows and female orphans of seamen are allowed pensions, amounting to one-sixth of the pay allotted to their deceased relatives, according to their several ranks.

Public instruction in the Neapolitan dominions is carried on by means

of an university, lyceums, and colleges, seminaries, and primary and secondary schools. In the University of Naples education is divided into the five faculties of divinity, jurisprudence, medicine, physics, and morals, each of which has various professorships attached to it specially. The lyceums are those of the capital and of four of the chief provinces. The other 11 provinces have colleges or minor lyceums. Some of the pupils pay for their board and education, and others are free scholars. Secondary schools, or classical and mathematical seminaries, are established in all the principal communes; and primary schools, or schools for reading, writing, and arithmetic, are instituted in all communes without distinction.

Youths intended for the medical profession are educated at a medical school in the metropolis, which is amply supplied with subjects for dissection, and which is closely connected with the General Hospital.

The principal establishments for female education are the first and second *Educandati Isabella*. In the first, which has already been mentioned as having been founded by Caroline Murat, 116 girls, daughters of noble parents, are boarded and educated. A certain number, called *Queen's Scholars*, pay 15*l.* a year; the others, who form the minority, pay 30*l.* each. They enter the school at eight years of age, and remain until 18. Their habitation is airy and commodious; their food good and plentiful; and their education complete in all its branches. The second *educandato* is on the same plan with the first, but on a smaller scale, and is open to all girls, without distinction of rank or parentage. Girls of the lower orders receive gratuitous instruction in reading, writing, and sewing in the schools of the metropolis.

The regular clergy amounted in 1825 to 8,455, and the secular clergy to 27,612, making a total of 36,067 churchmen, being to the whole population as 1 to 151. In the same year the nuns throughout the realm were upwards of 8,000 in number.

Sicily.—The population of Sicily amounted in 1836 to 1,936,033; deducting 136,033 for the victims to the cholera in 1837, the present population may be taken at 1,800,000.

The greater portion of the island belongs to the nobility and gentry; the smaller portion to the Crown, the church, and the corporate towns, in unequal shares, of which that of the towns is the largest and richest. Most of the landlords reside in Palermo and the provincial capital; a few inhabit the larger towns, but none live on their estates during the whole of the year.

The agricultural population consists of three great classes; the *Borgesi* or yeomanry, the *Inquilini* or small farmers, and the *Contadini* or peasantry. In popular use, however, the rustics are divided into "Hats" or *Borgesi*, and "Caps" or *Villani*.

The *higher Borgesi* are either small proprietors or middle men, between the landlords and the tenants; the *lower Borgesi* are quit-renters or copartners. The small proprietor ploughs and sows his own land: the middleman farms the property of others upon leases of three to nine years. Keeping the greater part in his own hands, he lets out the rest to under tenants, who pay their rent in kind. The quit-renters are holders of small properties on renewable leases. These are heritable on small fines in the same family, but are not transferable to strangers without the consent of the landlord. The copartners are

farmers of small estates in partnership with the landlords. In tillage the landlord ploughs the field twice or thrice, furnishes the seed corn, and makes advances of wheat for food. The farmer sows the seed, gathers the crop, and delivers the corn to the landlord, who keeps about two-thirds for himself, and gives the rest to the husbandman. In olive grounds, vineyards, and orangeries, the tillage and pruning falls entirely on the copartner, who receives about two-fifths of the crop, and gives the rest to the landlord.

The *Inquilini* are skilled labourers, owners of a few yoke of oxen, or two or three mules, who till the ground in partnership with the middlemen.

The *Contadini* are of three kinds, yearly servants, monthly servants, and day labourers. The yearly servants, found chiefly on large estates, compose four classes. 1st. The chief bailiff, who lets out farms for one or two years: the surveyor, who measures the land once a year; and the accountant, who keeps the books and papers. These people receive each about 30*l.* a-year, without provisions.—2d. Upper men, as stewards, mounted guards, chief herdsman, plough keepers, overseers, &c., who receive about 24*l.* a-year, without provisions.—3rd. Under men, as ploughmen, oxherds, shepherds, and goatherds, muleteers, under guards, and dairymen. These earn from 3*l.* to 6*l.* a-year, besides food.—4th. Lads, as cow-boys, stable-boys, and boys under goatherds and shepherds, receiving about 3*l.* a-year, besides food.

The daily provisions of men and boys in common, are three and a half pounds of coarse bread, and half a pint of oil. The men receive likewise a quart of wine a-day all the year round, which is given to the lads only during the summer. In May the allowance is larger than usual, and in June, July, and August, which are the harvest months, the labourers eat and drink without stint or restriction.

The monthly servants differ from the yearly, in receiving a certain quantity of wheat instead of bread. Their wages are somewhat lower than those of persons hired by the year.

The day labourer earns in general about a shilling a-day; receiving fourpence in money, and the value of eightpence in food.

The peasantry dwell in dark and filthy hovels, the floors of which are matted with green stuff, the walls plastered with mud, and the rafters hung round with cobwebs. A mattress and trestles, two or three clumsy chairs, a rickety table, and some earthen pots and pans, are all the household furniture of a Sicilian labourer. The dress of the peasantry is as dismal as their dwellings are gloomy. Black or brown is the prevailing colour. The men wear a night-cap, and a hooded cloak over a round jacket, knee breeches, cloth leggings, and heavy shoes: the women, muffled up in short cloaks, wear a scanty gown and petticoat, and shuffle about in slippers usually down at heel.

As farm houses are scarce, the labourers live in villages, whence they go forth at sunrise, returning at sunset, when their working place is hard by: when, however, it is far off, the peasant rides out on the Monday morning, and comes home on the Saturday evening. During the week he sleeps in a straw hut, or seeks shelter in a grotto or cavern. From April until June he works from 4 in the morning until 8 A. M.; from 9 until noon; and from 3 P. M., until sunset. He leaves off work in the middle of the day to sleep after dinner. During

the harvest months of July and August, he works about twelve hours a-day, and from September until April, from sunrise to sunset; stopping half an hour for breakfast, and a whole hour for dinner. All kinds of field work are done in a slovenly manner. Corn and grain are sown broadcast, or dropped into dibble-made holes. The rude implements of husbandry are the primitive plough, the hoe, the sickle, and the three-pronged wooden fork. The *zappa*, or hoe, the substitute for the spade, is about two feet long, and weighs from seven to nine pounds.

In the southern and eastern parts, beans and wheat are sown alternately. First, beans planted in November, in land twice ploughed in October, are got in in the following May: then wheat is sown in November in land twice ploughed as before, to be reaped in the June and July following. In the interior, and on the northern and southern coasts, beans and wheat are followed by a year of fallow; so that a white crop or a green crop is got in only once in three years. Two bushels of wheat, sown on an acre of ground, will yield from 16 to 25 bushels at harvest. Twenty bushels may be taken as the average of the return of the island, or ten for one. The principal crops are those of wheat, barley, rice, beans, pulse, and seeds; the secondary are those of barilla, cotton, flax, hemp, shumac, and tobacco.

A good crop of corn may be reckoned at 2,000,000 quarters of wheat, and 100,000 quarters of barley. Of the wheat about 1,800,000 quarters are consumed at home, being at the rate of one quarter a head for each inhabitant: the rest is sent abroad: some goes to Malta, and some to Greece. The barley serves chiefly for provender. The wheat is mostly of the hard kind. The coarse species is used for household bread; the finer sort for macaroni. The former weighs about 462 lbs. a quarter, the latter 483 lbs. Both species, being too hard to be ground by English millstones, require the use of French burrs or iron rollers. The soft wheat grown in small quantities, and used for French bread, weighs about 476 lbs. a quarter, and being spongy and perishable, is unfit for exportation. The barley, which weighs about 378 lbs. per quarter, is not suited for malting.

The chief fruits are the grape, the olive, and the citron. Besides these are the almond, the carob, the nut, chestnut and walnut, the common fig and the Indian fig, the mulberry and the melon. The white grape is preferred for the table: the black for the press. The most esteemed wines are those of Marsala and the eastern coast, of which about 20,000 pipes are exported yearly, namely, 15,000 from Marsala, and 5,000 from the eastern coast. The entire exportation of wine from Sicily, which in 1834 was 24,000 pipes, amounted in 1838 to nearly 50,000 pipes.

The broad-leaved olive yields about 7,500 tuns of oil, of which quantity 5,000 are consumed at home, and 2,500 are sent abroad, chiefly to France, by way of Nice. The Sicilian oil is equal to the common Neapolitan, but inferior to the clarified oil of Gallipoli. The citron, under which name oranges and lemons are included, is grown in abundance. The choice fruit is sent abroad; the common sort is sold in the market, and the refuse serves for the purposes of the chemist. Essential oil is expressed from the rind, and citric acid is obtained from the juice.

Sicily compared with Naples is scant of timber. In the central and southern parts there are few large trees. The only forest is that of

Caronia between Palermo and Messina, which produces abundance of oak, ash, pine, and elm, but which, from the want of a carriage road to the place of embarkation, is of little value in a commercial point of view. Small groves of stunted cork trees, scattered over the southern coast, yield outer bark for fishing tackle, and inner for the tanneries. Manna, the produce of the manna ash, is likewise obtained in abundance.

The live stock is not remarkable for excellence. The native breeds of horses, both for draught and riding, are small and feeble. The stud of the Prince of Butera, however, spring from an English stock, and, managed by an English trainer, is an honourable exception to the general statement. The mules are commonly weak; but the Modica breed is comparable to that of Spain for height, strength, and activity. A particular breed of oxen, used in husbandry, is remarkable for the length of its horns, which frequently exceeds three feet. The silk worms produce yearly about 460,000 lbs. of raw silk, of which 360,000 lbs. serve for foreign markets and home manufactures. The rest is spun and woven by the female peasantry into various articles of wearing apparel.

Mining industry may be said to be confined to the excavation of brimstone or sulphur; the extraction of salt and alum being too small to be noticed in a general view of mining operations.

Sulphur is found within the limits of a geographical line, which commences at the river Maccosoli in the valle of Girgenti, runs northward as far as Lercara in the valle of Palermo, trends eastward to Centorbi in the valle of Catania, and thence runs south-westerly to Terranova in the valle of Caltanissetta, where it terminates. The area of the sulphur district is about 2,600 English square miles. Destitute of timber, and diversified only by fruit-trees scattered around the villages, it has few charms for the passing stranger, beyond the fantastic shape of its cliffs and mountains. The man of science, however, who examines its soil, will find it replete throughout with objects of interest. The sulphur territory, the formation of which is tertiary, presents successive strata of shell, limestone, white and blue marl, intermixed with banks or beds of gypsum, and occasional patches of cretaceous matter. The sulphur is found imbedded in the lowest stratum of blue marl, which is distinguished from the upper one by the entire absence of shells. The district contains about 150 distinct mines, which are capable of yielding from 750 to 800,000 cantars (about 50 to 80,000 tons) of sulphur annually. The richest mines are those of Gallizzi, Sommatino, and Favara, of which the yearly production has been 100,000, 80,000, and 60,000 cantars respectively.

The visitor to a sulphur mine usually descends by a plane or staircase of high inclination to the first level, where he finds the half-naked miner picking sulphur from the rock with a huge and heavy tool; boys gathering the lumps together, and carrying them up to the surface; and, if water be there, the pumpmen hard at work draining the mine. A similar scene meets his eye in the lower or second level. Above ground the sulphur is heaped up in piles, or fusing in kilns.

Every stranger must be forcibly struck with the hardy and healthy look of the miners and burners, to which the lean and sickly aspect of the southern population forms a thorough contrast. The life of a pickman, which is sometimes said to be hard and wearisome compared with that of the peasant, is in reality easy and suitable to Sicilian taste. His

working days do not exceed 250 in the year, and his hours of labour are only six in the day. Left, therefore, with 18 hours a day to himself, he passes three-fourths of his time in eating, drinking, sleeping, and lounging about his village. Satisfied with animal existence, the pickman seeks not intellectual pleasures at the cost of increased exertion. His wages rise and fall with the price of the mineral; from 16*d.* to 20*d.* a-day for himself, and about half as much for each of his boys, are reckoned good earnings. The pumpmen are ill-paid labourers compared with the pickmen. Their daily toil, if lighter, is longer and less intermitted; and their occupation is productive of sickness rather than conducive to health. Constantly drawing in sulphuretted hydrogen gas, which escapes from the agitated water, they suffer so severely in their eyes as often to become blind for 24 hours. They work for eight hours a-day, and earn from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 4*d.* each. The burners, who extract the sulphur by fusing the ore in kilns made of gypsum and stone, or sometimes in close vessels or furnaces, usually earn about 1*s.* a-day.

The sulphur thus obtained by liquation, when hardened into cakes, is taken down to the coast by carriers and muleteers. These are mostly small farmers, who are paid by the load, according to the time of the year, and the demand for their services. Being seldom trustworthy people, these carriers are engaged by a warranter, who, for less than 1*d.* a cantar, becomes answerable for the safe delivery of the sulphur at the shipping place. To Palermo and Catania the sulphur is conveyed in carts: to the southern ports it is carried down on mules and asses.

Such is the working part of a mining establishment. The overlookers are mining captains, clerks, and a manager. The mining captain, chosen from among the pickmen for his knowledge of the mine, examines the veins, and directs the operation. As the right-hand man of the manager, he is looked upon, by the pickmen and others, as a person whose good opinion it is worth while to cultivate. Living in a substantial and commodious house, and dressing in a neat and becoming manner on Sundays and holidays, he holds a respectable place in village society. He usually resides a few miles from the works, but in some cases he dwells at the mine, where he is required to be in constant attendance from morning till night. His wages are from 2*s.* to 4*s.* a-day; but many unlawful perquisites raise his earnings to a higher amount. After a few years constant employment in a rich and extensive mine, he is usually able to retire with a competence sufficient for his limited wants. The clerks and watchmen, who keep account of piece work and labourers' time, who receive the fused sulphur, and weigh it out to the carriers, and who reside at the mine, to take care of the works, usually earn from 1*s.* 8*d.* to 2*s.* 8*d.* a-day. The manager or head agent, acts as treasurer and trustee for the owners or lessees of the mine. Aided by the mining captain and the clerks, he engages and pays the workmen, and keeps the general accounts. His salary is from 4*s.* to 6*s.* 8*d.* a-day. His gains are perhaps double this amount: so that he often makes his fortune in the course of a few years.

The number of persons regularly employed in the sulphur mines has been estimated at 4,400, viz., 1,300 pickmen, 2,600 boys, 300 burners, and 200 clerks and others, to which, if 3,600 persons occasionally employed, viz., 2,600 carriers, and 1,000 wharfingers, be added, the total amount will be 8,000 persons, more or less engaged in the extrac-

tion of ore, and the exportation of sulphur. A small portion of the sulphur carried down to Girgenti serves for the use of a royal refinery, whence it is exported to France and Austria in powder and in rolls. Previous to the sulphur contract, the chief part was sent in cakes to England, France, Holland, Russia, and the United States, in the proportion of three-sixths to England, two-sixths to France, and the rest to other countries.

In the Sicilian market sulphur is divided into first, second, and third qualities of Licata, (each of which is subdivided into best, good, and current,) and into first and second quality of Girgenti, with the like subdivisions. The first and second qualities of Girgenti correspond with the second and third of Licata. The sulphur of Palermo, Catania, and Terranova come under the Licata division, and that of Sciacca and Siculiana, under the head of Girgenti.

In former times, when the use of sulphur was confined to medicinal purposes and the manufacture of gunpowder, the exportation was small, but as soon as the mineral was applied to the making of carbonate of soda,* the amount became considerable. The exportation to foreign ports from 1832 to 1838 was as follows.—

Years.	Cantars.
1832	400,890
1833	495,769
1834	676,413
1835	661,775
1836	855,376
1837	764,244
1838 (7 Months)	1,011,591

Total 4,866,058 = 374,312 Tons.

Being at the rate of 739,140 cantars, or 56,857 tons per annum.

In 1838 a monopoly of the sulphur trade was established under the name of a privileged company. Its origin and progress until the close of the year 1839 have already been described in the "Journal of the Statistical Society."[†]

The subsequent course of events may be briefly narrated. In the commencement of 1840 the representations of the British merchants, supported by their minister at Naples, and sanctioned by their government at home, having failed to accomplish the abolition of the monopoly, reprisals were made upon Neapolitan commerce by the British fleet in the Mediterranean, the result of which was, that the contract was dissolved by a royal decree of the 21st July, 1840. The export duty of 20 tari per cantar was transferred from the company to the Crown, by whose officers it continues to be levied. On the 1st of January, 1842, its rate was lowered to eight tari per cantar.

The principal manufactures are those of leather, cotton, and silk.

Leather.—15 tanneries near Palermo, Messina, and Catania dress about 70,000 hides and 40,000 skins. The Sicilian leather is superior to the

* Carbonate of soda is made of salt and sulphuric acid. The muriatic acid in the salt is neutralized, and the salt is converted into sulphate of soda through the agency of the sulphuric acid. The sulphate of soda is then put into a furnace with coal and lime, when the sulphuric acid quits the soda to unite with the lime, forming gypsum or sulphate of lime, and is replaced by the carbonic acid given out by the coals, forming carbonate of soda.

† Vol. ii. p. 446.

Neapolitan, but not equal to the English or French. The capital invested in the trade does not exceed 100,000*l.* The hours of labour are 11 a day: the workmen earn from 8*d.* to 2*s.* 8*d.* per diem.

Cotton.—There are two spinning factories in Sicily; one, moved by steam power, was set up at Trapani about two years ago, and the other, moved by horse power, at Palermo, is scarcely twelve months old. The former spins native cotton, from No. 16 to No. 20; the latter from No. 6 to No. 16. At both, adults earn about 1*s.* a day, and children about 3½*d.* The hours of labour at the Trapani factory are 13, and at Palermo 11. Weaving is chiefly done at Palermo by women, who earn about 1*s.* a day in making plain goods. Double wages are paid to men who make twills. Both men and women work 12 hours a day. The articles woven are nankeens, ginghams, striped and checked, long cloths, cotton duck, and mattressing. At Messina, weaving is done partly in factories, and partly at home. The factories are two, those of Ainis and Ruggieri. Gaetano Ainis, with 500 hand-loom and fly-shuttle, produces yearly from 153,123 lbs. of English and Neapolitan yarn, about 37,500 pieces of cotton cloth of 28 yards each. He employs about 1,018 people, viz., 110 men, 574 women, and 334 children, who are paid by the piece, at the rate of 9½*d.* for white muslins, and 2*s.* 4*d.* for ginghams. A weaver, working from sunrise to sunset in summer, and from 5 A.M. to 7 P.M. in winter, can make from one to three pieces of the above articles in a week. Of the above quantity 32,500 pieces are destined for printing, in which department 268 persons are usually employed. The factory of the brothers Ruggieri is equal to that of Ainis in point of men and machinery, and perhaps superior in amount of yearly production.

At Catania the weaving is all done at home, by hand-loom. Such weavers as have no loom of their own hire one from the master manufacturer. The operatives are not subject to rules, but work as much and as long as they please. The hours of labour are 14 a day, exclusive of one hour of rest. A first-rate weaver will earn about 1*s.* a day; an ordinary one will get not more than 8*d.* or 10*d.* The work is not constant, but subject to stoppages, insomuch, that the number of working days in the year averages only 266.

Silk.—The silk manufacture is carried on in the cities of Palermo, Messina, Catania, and Aci Reale, where about 550 looms give employment to upwards of 1,200 weavers and others. In Catania, where the hours of labour are twelve a day, a woman can earn, as a reeler or picker, 6*d.*, and a girl, as a wheel-turner or sorter, 4*d.* A man, as a weaver working at home, can earn from 1*s.* 2*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* a day in summer, and proportionally less in winter, as he can work by daylight only. At Palermo every part of the process, from the reeling to the weaving, is carried on by a Mr. Pavin, who employs about 20 male adults, and 60 women and girls. A woman, working nine hours a day, may earn about 8*d.* in reeling; a girl may earn about 4*d.* in turning, or 2*d.* in winding. A male weaver, working ten hours a day, may earn in plain fabrics 1*s.* 4*d.*, in fancy work 1*s.* 8*d.*, and in damasked 2*s.* 8*d.*, out of which sums he must pay his piecer 4*d.* The articles woven are satins plain and striped, broche, gros de Naples plain and checked, taffety, tartan handkerchiefs, and *barèges* with open work.

The Sicilian fisheries are the General, the tunny, the sword, the anchovy and sardine, and the coral.

I. The General fishery in Palermo employs about 3,600 men and boys, and yields a produce valued at 22,000*l.* per annum. The fishermen compose two guilds, each of which has a handsome income, arising from a tax of about 3 per cent. on the value of the fish brought to market, and destined to the relief of the poor, the attendance of the sick, and the burial of the dead.

II. The tunny fisheries, 20 in number, give employment to about 280 boats, and 600 men and boys, who earn respectively about 2*l.* 10*s.* and 1*l.* 5*s.* in the course of May and June, to which months the fishery is limited. The *rais* or captain of each party receives from 8*d.* to 10*d.* a day; the mate 6*d.*, and the foreman 5*d.*

III. The sword fishery is carried on at Messina and Palermo for the supply of the home market.

IV. The anchovy and sardine fishery, on the northern and southern coasts, is of small extent and little value.

V. The coral fishery at Bona, in Africa, gives employment to the Trapanese, who gather the raw material and polish and prepare it for the manufacturers and merchants of Naples and Leghorn.

The home trade, the trade with Naples, and the trade with foreign countries, constitute the general commerce of Sicily.

I. The maritime part of the home trade is carried on by small craft of lateen rig, which ply from port to port at all seasons of the year; and the inland part by means of one horse carts, where there are carriage roads,* and of beasts of burden where there are only mule tracks.

II. The *cabotage*, or trade between the Two Sicilies, has already been described.

III. The foreign trade embraces the same classes of countries that have been specified under the head of Naples. Its extent was as follows in 1840:—

Summary of the Foreign Trade of Sicily in the year 1840.

Countries.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.
United States	40,812	244,720	285,532
Baltic	15,906	37,358	53,264
Belgium and Germany . .	88,292	128,639	217,131
Brazil and Plate	34,950	34,950
France	131,890	272,494	404,384
Great Britain and colonies .	288,228	425,819	714,047
Italian States	111,278	95,062	206,340
Mediterranean countries .	68,036	62,542	130,578
Total	744,442	1,301,784	2,046,226

The three following statements show, *first*, the quantities and value, according to custom-house registration and consular appraisement, of the principal articles imported into Sicily in 1840; *secondly*, a similar account of the exports from Sicily in the same year; and, *thirdly*, the shipping employed in foreign commerce, distinguishing national from foreign vessels, in the same year:—

* The aggregate length of the Sicilian carriage roads scarcely exceeds 400 miles.

A Statement of the Quantities and Value of Imports into Sicily, disting

Articles.	United States.		The Baltic.		Belgium and Germany.		Brazil.	
	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.
		£.		£.		£.		
<i>Colonial Produce.</i>								
Cocoa . . . cwts.	182	436
Coffee . . . "	1,020	2,295
Indigo . . . chests.	2	62	34	1,054
Pepper . . . cwts.	1,390	2,198	204	285
Spices . . . "
Sugar . . . "	6,790	17,380	1,200	1,800	1,014	1,521
Rum . . . galls.	1,080	180
Woods . . . cwts.	2,256	2,968	234	1,138
<i>Manufactures.</i>								
Cotton goods . pkgs.	14	490
" yarn . cwts.	343	2,420
" and Linen } goods . pkgs.	14	630
" and Wool } ditto . "	61	4,575	2	110
Earthenware } and Glass . "	417	5,580
Fancy goods . "
Hardware . . "	143	4,400
Linens . . . "	184	9,300
Silks . . . "	8	800
Woolleus . . "	239	25,850
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>								
Brass . . . cwts.	23	150
Copper . . . "	415	2,383
Copperas . . "
Coals . . . tons.
Deal Boards . No.	14,670	733	156,950	8,938
Drugs and Co- } lours . pkgs.	77	770	188	2,985
{ Cod . . cwts.	4,320	2,592
Fish { Herrings . barr.
{ Stock . . cwts.	6,420	4,494
Hides . . . "	3,281	9,186
Iron . . . "	1,234	617	2,518	1,634
Leather . . . "
Pitch and tar . barr.	419	510	1,140	1,684
Stationery and } Books . pkgs.	22	502
Steel . . . cwts.	3,013	4,337
Skins . . . bales.	29	1,950
Tin in bars . . cwts.
Tin plates . . boxes.
Saltpetre . . cwts.	654	1,123
Lead . . . "	142	113
Tobacco . . . "	1,859	2,757	1,156	1,115
Wax . . . "	829	5,325
Wool . . . lbs.
Miscellaneous .	..	544	..	3,986	..	1,110
Total value	40,812	..	15,906	..	88,292

ing the Countries from which the same were Imported, in the year 1840.

France,		Great Britain and Colonies,		Italian States.		Other Countries.		Total,	
Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.
	£.		£.		£.		£.		£.
480	1,476	307	855	119	329	1,088	3,096
388	871	549	1,233	1,551	3,483	4,986	11,153	8,494	19,035
34	1,054	44	1,364	10	310	124	3,844
1,254	1,755	240	336	224	313	3,312	4,887
147	712	45	520	1,820	5,716	2,012	6,948
2,272	3,408	19,274	40,173	4,592	7,246	10,765	39,397	45,907	110,925
114	11	2,382	238	3,576	429
274	492	42	185	300	1,223	3,106	6,006
137	5,170	749	35,300	69	3,000	969	43,960
..	..	7,960	54,083	231	1,402	8,543	57,905
..	..	40	1,800	12	540	66	2,970
416	30,680	602	43,470	382	27,890	1,463	106,725
239	5,330	469	6,428	5	50	1,130	17,388
64	6,400	28	2,800	28	3,000	120	12,200
243	19,750	92	6,650	58	5,350	536	36,150
44	2,300	18	900	40	2,000	286	14,600
126	11,300	28	2,700	147	11,825	309	26,625
43	6,400	85	12,700	24	3,500	391	48,450
..	23	150
..	..	64	358	240	1,344	719	4,085
..	..	15	20	15	20
..	..	4,594	5,728	4,594	5,728
..	14,112	705	185,732	10,376
320	4,223	99	1,601	254	4,269	98	980	1,036	14,828
2,084	1,250	4,140	3,980	844	506	11,388	8,328
..	..	465	782	60	75	522	857
..	6,420	4,494
3,687	11,058	2,298	7,055	4,716	15,793	1,664	5,296	15,646	48,388
..	..	75,589	41,496	125	160	79,466	43,907
47	600	56	720	103	1,320
58	116	120	240	501	412	2,239	2,962
22	502	4	76	28	586	2	38	78	1,704
..	3,013	4,337
20	1,000	49	2,950
..	..	228	832	328	1,197	556	2,029
..	..	2,378	5,149	2,378	5,149
80	150	393	981	363	647	31	60	1,721	2,961
7,070	8,742	312	249	7,524	9,164
694	1,145	1,124	1,577	784	1,073	5,617	7,667
434	1,302	75	744	432	3,026	1,770	10,397
100	50	100	50
..	4,643	..	6,967	..	3,518	..	9,840	..	30,608
..	131,890	..	288,228	..	111,278	..	68,036	..	744,442

Statement of the Quantities and Value of the Articles Exported from Sicily, during the year 1840.

Articles.	United States.		Baltic.		Belgium and Germany.		Brazil and State Rio de la Plata.	
	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.
Argols & Cream of Tartar . . .	cwts. 2,301	£. 1,473	1,292	£. 1,679	4,986	6,481
Barilla . . .	8,956	3,310	703	246	11,566	5,640
Brimstone . . .	22,598	8,395	4,302	3,195	41,664	16,926
Cantharides . . .	12	264
Cheese	29	43
Corn, Grain and Pulse . . .	qrs. 1,614	3,066
Cotton Wool . . .	cwts.	39	87
Essences . . .	lbs. 8,995	2,096	2,300	517	64,262	14,438
Fish, salted . . .	cwts.	260	455	2,232	3,976
Fruits { Dry and Pickled . . .	18,818	29,907	836	1,254	8,612	9,529
Oranges & Lemons . . .	box. 325,240	60,857	16,375	3,275	129,719	25,905
Lemon Juice . . .	galls. 4,628	694	8,880	1,332	18,424	2,763
Linseed . . .	qrs. 11,210	20,763	8,869	15,834	17	1
Liquorice Paste . . .	cwts. 2,354	4,467	879	1,539	997	1,737
Manna . . .	4,975	13,958	18	198	400	1,195
Oils { Linseed . . .	galls.
Olive . . .	61,709	11,063	62,050	9,333	89,102	13,216	13,032	2,4
Rags . . .	cwts. 24,931	16,752	453	408
Salt . . .	tons. 1,606	1,688	10,767	5,929	2,150	870
Seeds . . .	cwts. 2,662	1,432	306	153	753	612
Shumac . . .	76,551	29,943	2,270	970	3,637	1,454
Silks . . .	lbs. 6,837	3,531	152	152	922	922
Skins . . .	No.	77,411	2,549
Wine & Spirits . . .	galls. 301,278	25,540	16,132	4,839	20,668	2,988	89,462	26,8
Wool . . .	cwts.	12	27
Other Articles	5,521	..	1,884	..	1,657	..	5,6
Total Value	244,720	..	37,358	..	128,839	..	34,3

Return of the Number, Tonnage, and Crews of Vessels, distinguishing the Principal Countries to which they belonged, that entered Inwards and cleared Outwards at the Ports of Sicily, during the year 1840.

Inwards.				Outwards.		
Countries.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.
British . . .	631*	66,593	5,353	613*	63,808	5,278*
American . . .	102	26,719	1,160	98	25,744	1,110
French . . .	71	6,977	740	76	7,208	787
Sicilian . . .	5,173†	260,244	51,453	4,374†	226,343	45,916†
Sardinian . . .	158	21,093	1,647	162	21,547	1,685
Others . . .	484	77,893	4,266	386	77,904	4,735
Total . . .	6,619	459,519	64,619	5,709	422,554	59,511

* Including 210 Maltese small craft, of from 9 to 15 tons each.

† Including coasting vessels.

ing the Countries to which the same were Exported, in the year 1840.

France.		Great Britain and Colonies.		Italian States.		Other Countries.		Total.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	£.		£.		£.		£.		£.
374	390	838	918	1,062	1,354	437	568	11,290	12,863
556	229	23,559	9,739	2,970	1,086	2,812	984	51,222	21,234
400	93,042	567,100	122,928	718	245	1,067,782	244,731
53	1,166	42	908	3	66	110	2,404
..	..	2,641	3,974	515	735	845	1,611	4,030	6,363
186	8,665	6,649	7,857	920	1,059	6,314	10,556	18,983	31,206
..	10	22	49	109
372	6,059	38,811	8,732	9,100	1,989	1,814	408	152,654	34,239
162	1,888	1,024	1,636	142	258	1,312	2,296	6,032	10,509
112	13,346	6,445	8,116	73,030	18,982	5,432	13,241	119,387	94,435
124	1,265	58,507	12,053	3,117	674	32,163	6,432	571,545	110,461
122	9,963	40,341	6,051	1,220	183	322	48	140,237	21,034
51	1,902	11,401	20,861	606	1,170	916	1,648	34,648	62,212
93	751	1,503	2,809	599	1,067	1,416	2,478	8,141	14,848
22	3,967	6,629	14,607	1,094	2,904	3	33	14,441	36,852
..	5,512	694	5,512	694
11	57,637	406,552	50,697	222,892	31,426	46,231	6,514	1,356,579	182,324
40	126	4,263	3,758	5,169	4,571	420	378	35,376	25,993
..	..	114	57	3,454	1,201	12,257	5,753	30,348	15,498
31	372	11,128	3,043	937	489	1,367	683	17,754	6,784
22	8,538	109,079	41,976	19,779	6,872	2,141	909	235,379	90,662
28	46,528	27,683	27,683	2,285	2,285	84,407	81,101
32	5,235	849,700	25,019	18,141	595	1,621	53	1,109,335	33,454
16	3,346	1,586,865	43,876	176,749	6,134	25,441	3,097	2,230,551	116,658
..	12	27
..	8,073	..	8,461	..	9,001	..	4,852	..	45,089
272	494	..	425,819	..	95,062	..	62,542	..	1,301,784

The mercantile marine, as already stated, consisted, in 1806, of nothing but small craft. The repairs of the British fleet between 1806 and 1810 raised up a body of shipwrights, who, after the suppression of Algerine piracy in 1816, began to build vessels of larger size than usual for the trade between Naples and Sicily. Encouraged by differential duties granted in its favour, the mercantile marine has ever since made steady and signal advances. In 1819 it consisted of—

		Tons.
109 vessels of all rigs, measuring.	..	5,228
In 1823, of 89 square-rigged vessels measuring	..	11,347
And 1,348 lateen-rigged ditto	..	14,497
Total 1,437 vessels of all rigs.	..	25,844
In 1835, of 167 square-rigged	..	21,672
And 1,891 lateen-rigged.	..	20,128
Total 2,058 vessels of all kinds	..	41,800

The government of Sicily is vested in a lord-lieutenant, (having under him a secretary, a consultore, and other officers,) who corresponds with all the ministers of state, through whom the king's orders are communicated relative to Sicilian affairs.

The civil administration, already described under the head of General Government, directs and controls all charitable institutions, of which there are five in Palermo, two in Messina, and a few in the provincial capitals.

1. The Foundling Hospital of Palermo receives all children deposited in the wheel, without inquiry, and without distinction of sex. About half the foundlings die within the second year. Of those which survive ill nursing, the girls are taught needle-work and household duties, and at a proper age are put out to service; the boys are taught to read and write, and are sent to the school of industry, where, from seven years old to 14 they learn music or handicrafts, according as they are destined for the military band or for mechanical occupations. The revenue of the hospital is about 4,000*l.* per annum.

2. The Mendicant Asylum was founded in 1837, shortly after the visitation of the cholera, for the board and lodging of the metropolitan beggars. The paupers are employed in the cotton, linen, and woollen manufactures, and in trades and handicrafts. Dressed in the plainest clothes, and fed on the simplest fare, they are kept to work incessantly, four days in the year excepted, when they are allowed to see their friends. Severity, however, is tempered with kindness. Carefully taught the useful arts, released from labour when sick or feeble, skilfully treated when ill, and provided with religious teachers, the paupers are placed in a building where no exertions are spared for the purpose of training them up to industry and promoting their moral improvement. They are supported at a cost of about 6*l.* a head per annum out of the communal funds, voluntary contributions, and the sale of manufactures.

3. The Albergo de Poveri, endowed by Charles III. and by pious testators, provides about 800 paupers with lodging, board, and clothes.

4. The General Hospital receives the sick and hurt of all kinds, to whom it affords medical and surgical assistance. Its practice and arrangements have won the approbation of English practitioners, by whom it has often been visited.

5. The Royal Madhouse takes in about 130 paupers. The accommodations are suited to all classes of patients. The poorer sort are supported out of the revenue of the hospital, which amounts to about 2,000*l.* a year. The richer are maintained, either wholly or in part, by their respective friends.

Such are the means of relief provided for the poor of Palermo. If they fail or miss their effect, poverty has but one resource to satisfy its cravings, namely the *Monte di Pietà*, or office of the public pawnbroker. Here money is advanced upon gold, silver, jewels, household furniture, and wearing apparel, at 5 per cent. for six months, or 6 per cent. per annum, according to circumstances. The lowest sum advanced is 1*l.* Forfeited pledges are sold by auction, and the excess of price over the rate of profit obtained at such sale is paid to the owner of the article. The profits of the establishment, amounting to about 6,000*l.* per annum, are distributed among the charitable institutions of Palermo.

The provision for the poor of Messina is limited to two hospitals and a Monte di Pietà. The Great Hospital, with an income of 2,650*l.* per annum, accommodates 500 patients of both sexes. A foundling hospital, attached to the establishment, receives about 60 children of both sexes. The Hospital of Callereale, with an income of about 2,000*l.* a-year, admits patients of the male sex only. The Monte di Pietà is similar to that of Palermo.

State Revenue of Sicily in 1838.

HEADS OF TAXES.	PRODUCE OF TAXES.			
	Ounces.	£.	Ounces.	£.
<i>Direct.</i>				
Land-tax	465,000	232,500
<i>Indirect.</i>				
Excise	611,314	305,657		
Customs and navigation .	397,938	198,969		
Lottery	126,335	63,668		
Registration	97,229	48,614		
Stoppages of salaries . .	52,800	26,400		
Post office	19,506	9,753		
Crusade	17,761	8,881		
Miscellaneous	167,281	83,640		
Gross Total of Indirect Taxes	1,493,164	746,582		
Deductions therefrom . .	232,426	116,213		
Net amount of Indirect Taxes	1,260,738	630,369
Total Revenue	1,725,738	862,869

State Expenditure of Sicily in 1838.

HEADS.	AMOUNT.			
	Ounces.	£.	Ounces.	£.
Contribution to Naples	978,286	489,143
Payments to Sicilian Exchequer, viz.—				
Indirect taxes	51,348	25,674		
Divers branches	59,961	29,980		
Particular administrations	87,245	43,622		
Other departments . . .	781,324	390,633		
			979,878	489,939
Total Expenditure	1,958,164	979,082

The revenue of Sicily, as shown in the foregoing table, is drawn from a single head of direct taxation, and from eight heads of indirect.

Direct.—The land tax was first imposed in 1810, when the injudicious use of triple basis produced a striking inequality in the general assessment, which has not yet been fully adjusted. In some cases the rate is under 12½ per cent on the net rental, in others it exceeds 25 per cent.

Of the *indirect taxes*, the first head, the excise, has two branches, viz., the *multure* or tax upon corn ground, and the *meat tax* or tax upon butchers' meat. The former amounts to 3*s.* 2*d.* on a quarter of wheat in the smaller towns, and to 4*s.* 6*d.* on the same in the principal cities. The latter tax is levied in the capitals of provinces, at the rate of a half-penny a pound upon all kinds of flesh.

The second head, the customs and navigation, is farmed out to a company, which has engaged to pay the government 473,333 ounces, (236,666*l.*) per annum for six years, from the 1st of January, 1840, the date of the new contract.

The third head, the lottery, is particularly baneful, as the low price of tickets places public gambling within the reach and means of the humblest and poorest classes.

The fourth head, registration, applies to judicial acts and mortgages on estates.

The fifth head, stoppages from salaries, comprises 2½ per cent. contribution to the superannuation fund, 10 per cent. official income tax, and six months' savings on civil and military vacancies.

The smallness of the sixth head, the post office, bears due proportion to the contracted scale of internal communication.

The seventh head, the crusade, arises from the sale of indulgences for eating eggs, milk, and cheese in Lent. It was originally destined for the defence of the country against the Barbary cruizers, but since the suppression of Algerine piracy, it has been applied to general purposes.

The eighth head, miscellaneous, includes a tax upon merchants, and licences for carrying arms.

The expenditure of Sicily embraces two heads: the contribution to the treasury of the Two Sicilies, and the payment to the exchequer of Sicily Proper.

The first head concerns the support of interests common to both divisions of the kingdom, as the royal household, the state departments, the national debt, &c., &c. Of the payments specially applicable to Sicily, Nos. 1, 2, and 3, include the salaries and allowances of Sicilian authorities. No. 4 comprises the separate debt of Sicily, which stood as follows in 1838:—

	Ounces.	£.
Due to public bodies	119,509	59,754
Due to private persons	60,644	30,322
Total . .	180,153	90,076

The education of youth still remains in the hands of the clergy. Reading and the catechism are taught gratuitously in primary schools, and writing and arithmetic in secondary schools established in the metropolis and in the larger towns. Instruction in the rudiments of Latin is given in Jesuits' schools in six of the smaller cities, and in colleges and academies in 21 principal towns. Greek, Latin, logic, and the mathematics are studied in the Universities of Palermo and Catania; and divinity is taught in diocesan seminaries in all the chief cities. The best public schools for boys are two, called the Jesuits' school and the school for nobles, in the Jesuits' College at Palermo. In the former the children of the poor are instructed gratuitously in the classics; in the

other the sons of the higher and middle orders are taught Italian and Latin, geography, history, and the elements of natural philosophy. Tuition, board, and lodging are afforded for 23*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* a-year. Greek, French, and English are taught by extra masters. The number of schools, therefore, is not inadequate to the wants of Sicilian youth. The defects, however, are so great and manifold, that the mass of the people is buried in darkness. Few of the lower orders can read; still fewer can write; many of the middle orders can barely sign their names; and the greater part of the higher classes content themselves with learning to speak French, without heeding the attractions of general literature.

The daughters of the nobility are for the most part brought up in convents from 10 till 18 years of age. They are taught by the elder nuns to read and say their prayers, to sew, knit, and embroider. Writing and arithmetic, French, and music are taught by masters at the grating of the parlour. Nothing else is thought necessary for females to learn. The general charge for board and a plain education is 9*l.* per annum. A small sum, however, is payable at entrance; a few extra charges are common, and a handsome present is usually made at departure to the prioress, or the convent chest. The whole expense may be reckoned at 15*l.* per annum.

From 18 until 21 years of age the pupil, who is supposed to have completed her education, may remain in the house as a boarder, subject to all the rules in common with the scholars. Upon coming of full age she must leave the convent, or enter as a novice, in which latter case, at the end of her noviciate, which is limited to a twelvemonth, she must either take the vows or go home to her friends. Girls of the lower orders are taught reading, writing, and sewing in free schools, or *Collegi di Maria*, endowed by testators, in the capital and the principal towns.

The state of literature, science, and the arts is altogether unsatisfactory. The periodical press, subject to a censorship, sends forth little beyond monthly and semi-weekly publications, compiled from foreign journals, and barren of general interest. The most distinguished authors are the Duke of Serra di Falco, who has published a fine work on Sicilian antiquities, and the Prince of Scordia, who has written with great talent upon Sicilian history in modern times. Tineo as a botanist, and Villareale as a sculptor, deserve honourable mention in their several walks.

The only public worship, the exercise of which is lawful, is that of the Roman Catholic Church. The rituals of the Eastern Church, which acknowledges the Papal supremacy, are allowed to the six Greek colonies long settled in Sicily. The Greeks of five communities follow the rule of the united branches; those of Messina adopt that of the schismatic section.

The regular clergy consist of 23 orders, whose united members amount to nearly 8,000 brethren.* The secular body comprises about 10,000 members. The beneficed portion consists of the cathedral clergy; the unbeficed of parish priests and chaplains.

* The professed nuns in all Sicily are in number about 5,000, of whom 1,500 reside in Palermo. They inhabit convents, well endowed for the most part by founders and testators, and by professing nuns and wealthy widows. Their large estates are managed by priests and lawyers under the control of a visitor or guardian. The society is answerable to no superior for the disposal of its property; but the prioress is strictly accountable to the bishop of the diocese for the maintenance of order and discipline.

The archbishops are those of Palermo, Messina, and Catania. They have under them 10 suffragan bishops, all of whom, in common with the metropolitans, are appointed by the king, and confirmed by the pope. The canons and prebendaries are nominated by the king or by the prelates, according to local usage.

The prelates and dignitaries derive the greater part of their incomes from landed estates. One-third of the Episcopal revenue is distributed among pensioners named by the king; another third is applied to cathedral repairs and charitable purposes; and the remaining third is left to the bishop for the maintenance of his dignity.

The parish priests are elected by the bishop and his court, after a public examination, from among the chaplains or curates. Most of them are paid by the communes, but a few are supported by glebes attached to certain livings in the gift of lay patrons.

The number of the parochial clergy is insufficient for the due discharge of their weighty and manifold duties. Not only do baptism, marriage, the Lord's supper, and the burial of the dead belong to the parish priests and chaplains, but the heavy tasks of the confessional, attendance on the sick and dying, and the visitation of prisons and hospitals fall to their laborious lot. Attendance on the sick often lasts a whole week, during which time priest after priest takes his place beside the sufferer to administer the sacrament, to bestow holy unction, and to afford him in his last agony the consolations of religion. Nor is it only occasional duty which occupies the parochial clergy. In a country where mass is said daily, no day of rest is allowed to the parish priest. His ministration is therefore incessant. Were, then, these duties to fall wholly upon the parochial clergy, they would go undischarged. It therefore becomes necessary to call in the cathedral clergy and the regulars, in order to supply the deficiency of secular ministers. But if the parish priests, viewed in the abstract, be too few for their manifold duties, the clergy, taken as a body, are too numerous for useful purposes. This excess in their numbers springs from three causes. *First*, the facilities afforded to divinity students for obtaining instruction at little or no cost are abundant, compared with those for completing a medical or legal education. In the next place, the middle orders are anxious to raise their children in the scale of society, by placing them in a profession, the honours and emoluments of which are open to all, without distinction of persons. And, lastly, the nobility of all ranks are deterred by pride and prejudice from bringing up their sons to the army and navy, the learned professions, and the walks of industry. These combined motives tend to swell the number of the regular and secular clergy to an amount disproportionate to the religious wants of the community.

The doctrine and discipline of the Sicilian church are founded on the principles of the canon law and the decisions of the Council of Trent. The power of papal dispensation from canonical rules is exercised under the sanction of the civil authorities. The government of the church is vested in archbishops and bishops, each of whom can suspend a priest or excommunicate a layman for neglect of duty or breach of discipline. This terrible power is cautiously exercised. From the ordinary appeal lies to the metropolitan, and from the metropolitan to the judge of the monarchy, whose decision is final.

The officer last named is peculiar to Sicily. Always a regular or

secular priest, he takes precedence of the primate of the realm; allows no papal bull to be circulated without his sanction; and tries, as vicar-general of the Apostolical Legation, all ecclesiastical causes, which in other countries are referred to the judgment of the papal court.

CHAPTER X.

THE TWO SICILIES PAST, PRESENT, AND TO COME; STATE AND PROSPECTS OF THE COUNTRY.

Having brought down the history of the two divisions of the country to the present time, it may be well to cast a retrospect on the chief objects of interest that have come under observation. Of these we may particularly notice four, namely, Increase of Population, Advance of Industry, Changes in the Government, and Vicissitudes in Public Instruction. Each of these great objects deserve special consideration.

I. The inhabitants of both the Sicilies have much increased since the accession of Charles the Third.

The Neapolitans amounted in—

1734 to about	4,000,000
1781 to	4,709,976
1819 to	5,034,191
1828 to	5,733,430
1840 to	6,177,598

They have therefore increased about 2,000,000 in 106 years, being at the rate of about one-half per cent. per annum.

The Sicilians amounted in—

1735 to about	1,000,000
1798 to	1,600,000
1840 to	1,800,000

They have, therefore, increased about three-quarters of a million in 105 years, being at the rate of about four-fifths per cent. per annum.

II. In both the Sicilies every branch of industry was in a decayed or drooping state at the era of the Spanish conquest. Husbandry was backward, and trade was stagnant; manufactures were stationary; fisheries were neglected, and mines were abandoned. Improvement took place under the reigns of Charles the Third and Ferdinand his son. The plough, the loom, and the anvil, became busy throughout the land. Trade with foreign countries sprang up by degrees, and the coral fishery rose and prospered for a season. The mining industry of Sicily first became active under the reign of the present sovereign. In a word, all the useful arts have risen, slowly but steadily, from insignificance to importance during the past century.

III. At the accession of Charles the Third, the legislative functions of government were vested in the Crown: the powers of the executive rightly belonging to the sovereign, as lord paramount, were shared by him with the barons and the clergy, as lords paravail. This anomaly in government was soon rectified in one division of the kingdom. In the realm of Naples the power of distributing justice was taken from the feudatories, and given to the royal judges in the beginning of the reign of Ferdinand. In the realm of Sicily, the barons and clergy retained the judicial administration until 1812, when, upon the general reforma-

tion of political abuses, it was vested in the king's person. This important change was followed by another of a doubtful character. The faint influence exercised over the Neapolitan government by the Deputation of Nobles was wholly extinguished, when that junta was superseded by a corporate body at the close of the eighteenth century. In Sicily, however, the great nobles retained their political power until 1812, when the constitution of parliament underwent a total change. By these and other acts, a mixed form of government has been converted by degrees into an absolute monarchy.

IV. The vicissitudes of instruction have been no less remarkable than the changes in government. In both countries the tuition of youth was entrusted to the Jesuits, by whom it was conducted with skill and assiduity. Transferred to the regular and secular clergy, upon the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1767, the task of education was discharged by priests exclusively, until 1808, when, upon the general establishment of schools in the Neapolitan dominions, it devolved upon laymen and churchmen in common, by whom it is still exercised with lukewarm zeal. In Sicily the duties of tuition which, as in Naples, were transferred from the Jesuits to the clergy in 1768, were restored to the reinstated order in 1804; from which time to the present, the Jesuits have been the principal instructors of the Sicilian youth.

At the era of the Spanish conquest, the Neapolitan clergy formed a thirty-sixth part of the whole population, and owned about two-thirds of the continental territory, and the Sicilian clergy were scarcely less numerous and wealthy. A reform was fast approaching, the effects of which were destined to be permanent. Seven convents were suppressed in Naples, and 28 in Sicily by Ferdinand the First about 1770. The general suppression of Neapolitan convents was reserved for Joseph Buonaparte, by whom it was undertaken and effected in 1808. In Sicily the monastic orders are still numerous and powerful, but are shorn of their ancient splendour. The Neapolitan clergy formed in 1826 a 151st part, and the Sicilian constitute at present a 100th part of the respective populations of Naples and Sicily. The wealth of the church in Naples at least is believed to be of moderate amount, and in Sicily, where it is proportionately larger, it is far from being excessive, considering the number of the regular and secular clergy.

Such have been the fortunes of popular education and religious worship during the past century. In neither of the Sicilies have ignorance and superstition been put to flight by the spread of sound principles in knowledge and religion.

If we examine what effect these changes have produced upon the condition of the people, we shall find that they have in part wrought evil, but good upon the whole. If the result has been unfortunate in the release of the court from popular control both in Naples and Sicily, it has in all other respects been happy. The nation is no longer divided into demesnal and feudal populations, but constitutes one people. The commons are no longer subject to nobles and churchmen, but are governed by a single ruler. Justice, no more dealt out by baronial dependents, is administered by the king's judges. Privileged orders have ceased to exist, and civic equality prevails in full force. Voluminous *statutes* are compressed into a single code. The burthen of *taxation*, once thrown upon the middle orders, is now shared equally by all *classes*

of society. We may therefore assert that the condition of the people is materially improved, and that the improvement bids fair to proceed, if it be accompanied by an amendment of the executive power, according to which its progress will be faster or slower.

It would not be difficult to point out the changes most required in the present system of government, but the present would not be a fitting occasion.

With regard to the relative condition of the two divisions of the kingdom, and the comparative prospect of improvement in each, it may be anticipated that the progress of both will be simultaneous, and for this opinion several reasons may be offered.

The Two Sicilies have, externally and internally, advantages and disadvantages, conveniences and inconveniences, common to both, and peculiar to each, that require to be carefully investigated in order to be rightly understood.

The advantages enjoyed in common, are extent of territory, number of inhabitants, happiness of position, healthiness of climate, beauty of scenery, and fertility of soil. The kingdom of the Two Sicilies, larger and more populous than any of its neighbours, situated midway between Central Europe and Northern Africa, and favoured with a pleasant temperature and fruitful territory, offers an abundance of animal and vegetable substances, together with marine and mineral productions, in exchange for the commodities and merchandize of northern and tropical countries. The conveniences peculiar to each of its divisions, are the proximity of Naples to the Ionian Islands, and the neighbourhood of Sicily to Malta. With these military and naval stations, an active trade is carried on, much to the benefit of the kingdom at large.

The disadvantages, under which the Two Sicilies equally labour are the dryness and sterility of certain provinces in both countries, the want of navigable rivers and perennial streams, the height and direction of the Apennine chains, the insecurity of ports and harbours, and the frequency and destructiveness of eruptions and earthquakes. Many extensive districts, parched up for several months in the year, are perpetually barren. The rivers are for the most part shallow and rocky streams, and the water-courses, fed by mountain snows, disappear in the height of summer. The lofty and unbroken Apennine, running through both countries parallel to the coasts, renders the construction of cross-roads difficult and expensive. The chief ports are not safe at all seasons, and the only good haven is the harbour of Syracuse; eruptions of Vesuvius, and earthquakes on both sides of the Faro happen almost every year.

The inconveniences peculiar to each division are the openness of Naples to foreign invasion, and the exposure of Sicily to epidemic disorders. Naples, unprotected by frontier fortresses or internal lines, has neither natural nor artificial means of repelling an invader. Sicily, on the other hand, lying nearer to Barbary and the Levant, is more exposed to the plague, which scourge has on more than one occasion depopulated her cities, crushed her industry, and destroyed her commerce.

Since then it appears, upon close examination, that the balance of good and evil is pretty fairly adjusted between the Two Sicilies, it may reasonably be expected, as it must assuredly be desired, that the future improvement of the kingdom will be common to both of its divisions.

Notice on Periodical Phenomena. By Professor A. QUETELET, Foreign Member of the Statistical Society of London, &c. &c.

[Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association, 3rd August, 1841.]

AMONGST the variable phenomena which come within the scope of Statistics, there is one class that appears to deserve particular observation, consisting of those phenomena which undergo periodical fluctuations, and are subject to changes so regular, that it has been found practicable to determine the laws by which they are governed.

Hitherto these facts have generally been studied separately, and have been classed in distinct branches of science, in conformity with the particular views of the individuals who have directed their attention to them. It is, however, easy to perceive that this kind of division tends to impede the progress of science, and to retard the discovery of the general connection which exists among all periodical phenomena.

In this manner statistical inquiries have been carefully directed to the examination of the influence of the seasons on deaths, births, crimes, insanity, suicides, commerce, consumption, &c.

From meteorology have been obtained indications of the temperature and laws of the atmosphere: from the science of medicine we have sought the results of observations on the nature and intensity of diseases. Information not less valuable is derived from the natural sciences, and from agriculture, as to a multitude of interesting facts; but these facts are generally collected and classed in separate tables, and a simultaneous observation of them has been neglected.

The idea of filling up this gap in science, made me sensible of the necessity of enumerating all periodical phenomena; and I considered that it would be desirable to submit this idea to the British Association for the Advancement of Science, with the view of showing more forcibly the importance of a study which has for its object not only the investigation of general laws hitherto little known, but also of supplying the means for a better consideration of climates, and for a comparison of them one with another.

I have deemed it advisable to confine myself here to a concise summary; but to the section of Natural Sciences I have communicated a note of M. de Selys Longchamps, which will point out more fully the developments of which each of the heads I have given is susceptible.

In Belgium there has been instituted a general system of simultaneous observations, and many learned foreigners have been good enough to undertake to carry on the same elsewhere, so as to allow of the comparison of different climates with respect to the same periods and the same phenomena.

Observations on meteorology, the temperature and magnetism of the earth, on the budding season, &c., have been made for many years at the Royal Observatory at Brussels; and since the commencement of 1841, the periodical phenomena of nature have been also observed in the principal towns of Belgium: by MM. Cantraine and Richx, at Ghent; by MM. Martens, Crahay, Schwan, and Van Beneden, at Louvain; by MM. Moeren, De Selys Longchamps, and Dumont, at Liège; by MM. Wesmael, Du Bas, Robyns, Stas, and Dr. Gastour, at Brussels, &c.

The study of the influence of the seasons on diseases, and the sanitary state of the country in general, has not yet received the same attention:

but everything concurs to inspire us with the hope of receiving the assistance of active and learned physicians, who appreciate the advantages of a system of observations, which would lay a foundation for the complete medical statistics of the kingdom.

Periodical Phenomena: Annual and Diurnal Variations.

Meteorology and Physics.	{	Temperature of the air, water, and earth. (Thermometer.)
		Pressure of the atmosphere. (Barometer.)
		Humidity of the air. (Hygrometer.)
		Quantities of rain, hail, and snow, &c. (Udometer.)
		Electricity of the air. (Electrometer.)
		Direction and force of the wind.
		Magnetic declination and power.
		Radiation of light.
		Tides.
		State of the sky.
Chemistry.	{	Meteors, (Aurora Borealis, Shooting Stars, &c.)
		Analysis of air and water.
Botany and Agriculture.	{	Leafing of trees and plants.
		Opening of the bud.
		Fructification.
		Fall of the leaf.
		Periods of tilling the earth.
		—— of the maturity of fruits and vegetation.
		—— of harvests.
		—— of hay ditto.
		—— of vintages.
		Arrival, passage, and departure of migratory birds.
Zoology.	{	—— of fishes.
		Appearance of different butterflies.
		Other entomological phenomena.
		Reproduction of animals.
		Mortality of ditto.
		Seasons of hunting and fishing.
		Fecundation, births.
		Marriages.
		Deaths and their causes.
		Diseases and their duration.
Man.	{	Insanity.
		Crimes.
		Suicides.
		Consumption of food, traffic by the post, and on roads.
		Ditto of Sea-ports.

*Royal Decree, dated 20th Oct., 1841, for the Regulation of the Functions and Operations of the Central Statistical Commission of Belgium, appointed by a Decree of 16th March, 1841.**

LEOPOLD, King of the Belgians, to all present and to come, Greeting :

Whereas, by the 5th article of our Decree of the 16th March last, it was ordained that the manner of executing the functions and conducting the labours of the Central Commission of Statistics should be determined by special regulations, to be drawn up by our Minister of the Interior, in concert with the heads of the other departments, and to be submitted to us for our approbation ;

And Whereas such a code was prepared by the Central Commission of Statistics, at its meeting of the 1st Sept., 1841 :

* See vol. iv. p. 226.

Upon the report of our Minister of the Interior, and the counsel of the other heads of the executive,

We have decreed, and do decree—

Art. 1. The principal functions of the Commission are :

1. To draw up a complete report of the Statistics of the country.
2. To point out the omissions or superfluous details which exist in the official statistical publications.
3. To give advice as to the forms of returns proposed for the collection of statistical information, and as to the forms of the tables in which the information collected should be abstracted, which will be forwarded to it from the different ministerial departments, and, in case of need, to propose forms of returns.
4. To guard against unnecessary labour in the duplicate preparation or publication of the same returns.
5. To give explanatory notices upon reports submitted to the King, relating to the statistical labours of the several departments, whenever such reports are to be made public.
6. To transmit general statistical publications to the Minister of the Interior.
7. To make whatever propositions may appear necessary to introduce unity of design, or improvements in the statistical labours of the government.

Art. 2. The Commission will correspond with the Minister of the Interior, with reference to the carrying out of its objects, and the latter will communicate the views of the commission to the chief of the department concerned, who will adopt them or modify them, if he deems it necessary. Its communications with other departments or public authorities will be conducted through the medium of the Minister of the Interior.

Art. 3. Provincial or local Commissions of statistics may be established.

The members of such commissions shall be nominated by the Minister of the Interior, upon the recommendation of the central Commission.

Art. 4. The Commission may, with the authority of the Minister of the Interior, enter into direct communication with scientific bodies or learned men, either in Belgium or abroad, who are engaged upon statistics, or sciences connected with it. It may also appoint corresponding members with the approbation of the Minister.

Art. 5. The Commission shall publish an official account of its labours, which shall contain—

1. Minutes of its sittings.
2. All documents relating to the statistics of the country, which are not of a nature to form special publications.
3. Notices or articles concerning national, foreign, or comparative statistics, which may be addressed to it.
4. Reports, or other documents, the publication of which would be interesting.

The Commission, in ordering the insertion of unofficial documents or articles, will take care not to hold itself unanswerable for the opinions advanced by the authors.

Art. 6. The ordinary meetings of the Commission shall be held, by

written notices, every fortnight. Independently of the ordinary meetings, the Commission may assemble on extraordinary occasions, if the members, or the president, think proper.

Art. 7. Minutes shall be made of each meeting; these shall be read at the commencement of the following meeting, and, after their adoption, be transcribed into a register, and signed by the president and secretary. A copy shall be forwarded to the Minister of the Interior.

Art. 8. The assembly shall not be empowered to deliberate unless at least one-half of the members be present: their names shall be entered upon the minutes.

Art. 9. A register to receive the signature of the members present shall be deposited in the office, and kept by the secretary.

Art. 10. The President shall open and close the meetings, announce the correspondence, determine the order of the speakers, put questions, pronounce decisions, and, after having consulted the Commission, appoint a day for the next meeting, as well as the order of business. He shall be especially charged with the execution of these regulations.

Art. 11. The Secretary shall draw up the minutes of the meetings, read the papers, take charge of the library, archives, and correspondence, and all business appertaining generally to the office.

Art. 12. All letters shall be signed by the president and secretary.

Art. 13. A register shall be kept of all letters received or sent.

Art. 14. In case of the absence of the president or secretary, they shall be replaced by a member appointed by the Commission to act during their absence.

Art. 15. Every member shall have the right of making propositions. These shall be signed and placed in the hands of the president, and notice must be taken of them in the minutes. The discussion upon them shall take place at the ensuing meeting, if required by two members. The previous question, or the order of the day, may always be called for.

Art. 16. The Commission shall nominate from its body one or more members, to examine communications addressed to it, or propositions which come under its cognizance. The reports of subcommittees shall be made in its name, after having been confirmed by it. The author of a proposition shall invariably be added to the members appointed to examine it.

Art. 17. Members of subcommittees shall have papers transmitted to them according to the order of their nomination, and shall make their observations thereon in writing. The papers and observations upon them shall be sent to the reporter. The commissioner first nominated shall be the reporter, unless otherwise specially determined. The subcommittee shall, if necessary, be summoned by the secretary to draw up the report.

Art. 18. All decisions shall be determined by the majority of votes of the members present. In case of an equality of votes, the discussion shall be adjourned to the following meeting, and if the votes should again be found equal, the president's vote shall decide.

*Art. 19. Before the 1st of October, 1842, the names of those members who are to go out at the first and second partial reappointment of

the Commission will be balloted for. The member nominated in place of one who resigns, or who withdraws from the Commission from other motives, shall complete the turn of the person whose place he takes.

Art. 20. The attendance fee shall be 6 francs, and the secretary shall have in addition 1,000 francs, annually, dating from the month succeeding his nomination.

Art. 21. Abstract lists of attendance shall be prepared half yearly, and after signature by the president and secretary, shall be transmitted, together with the documents in support of them, to the Minister of the Interior, in order that the accounts may be settled.

Art. 22. The expenses of the Commission shall be passed to the accounts of the Minister of the Interior, and defrayed out of the sum voted for the publication of general statistics.

Art. 23. Our Minister of the Interior is charged with the execution of this decree.

Given at Brussels, the 20th October, 1841.

(By the King,)

LEOPOLD.

Minister of the Interior, NOTHOMB.

Report on the Condition of the Working Classes in the Town of Kingston-upon-Hull. By the Statistical Society of Manchester.

[Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association, August 2nd, 1841.]

IN the early part of 1839, the Manchester Statistical Society sent their agent to Hull, to conduct an examination of that town from house to house, in order to extend their inquiries as to the state of education, and the social condition of the population, into a community differing widely, both in character and circumstances, from that of the manufacturing, or of the agricultural districts to which their previous investigations had been confined. The educational part of the inquiry, furnished matter for a copious, and on the whole a favourable report.* The results of the other branch of the inquiry, have been condensed into a series of tables, which are herewith presented, and call for a few preliminary observations.

The examination was conducted by an experienced agent, who visited every house in the town part of Kingston-upon-Hull, and recorded in a book, ruled to the subjoined pattern, (see p. 214) all the information he could obtain, directly or circuitously, by careful and repeated inquiry. It will be readily believed that much suspicion and reluctance were at first encountered; but forbearance and perseverance smoothed the way, and these difficulties were ultimately overcome.

Tables I., II., III., and IV., relate to the numbers, age, and occupations of the resident population, the total of which reaches 37,885. Of these it appears that

95.08	per cent. are	English.
2.24	„	Irish.
1.36	„	Scotch.
.84	„	Foreigners.
.48	„	Welsh.

100.00

* Published in the 4th volume of the Statistical Journal, p. 156.

These proportions are exceedingly different from those which prevail in the towns on the West coast, where the facilities of intercourse with Ireland cause a large influx of the labouring classes from that country. In Manchester and Salford, 16 per cent. were found to be Irish, and 3.5 per cent. to be Welsh.

It may be observed in reference to these tables, that in comparison with manufacturing towns, a sea port affords little employment for women and children, and not very regular or constant occupation even for adult males. Of 20,151 females of all ages, only 3,857 have any definable occupation apart from household duties. Of 11,400 adult females, 8,794 have no ostensible occupation; and as this number corresponds almost exactly with that of the heads of families, it may fairly be inferred that there are but few cases in which the labour of adult males is not sufficient for the support of the family, and that the mothers are therefore enabled to devote themselves wholly to the management of their household. In the manufacturing districts, we know this is far from being so generally the case; though we have not sufficient data to afford an accurate comparison. A great difference is also observable in the number of minors (under 21 years of age), who are employed, and in receipt of wages. The proportion is 21 per cent. in Hull, against 35 per cent. in Manchester and Salford, and 40 per cent. in the Ashton and Dukenfield district. These proportions are not given as exact, but as approximations, for there is some reason to believe that in the two latter cases some adults were classed as minors, from the circumstance of their continuing to live with their parents.

Tables V., VI., VII., VIII., and IX., give a comprehensive view of the condition of the dwellings inhabited by the working classes; and before examining them, it is necessary to observe that of those which are entered in these tables, as "not ascertained," about 2,900 were houses inhabited by the middle and higher ranks, which it did not enter into the plan of the Society to investigate.

The first point to remark upon (which will be seen on a reference to Table I.), is the very small portion of the population resident in cellars. In Liverpool, this proportion was about 15 per cent. of the entire population. In Manchester, 12 per cent.; in Salford, 8 per cent.; and in Hull, only 1½ per cent. The houses, too, are more frequently subdivided into separate chambers in Hull; consequently the separation of families is more distinct, and the system of taking in lodgers less generally practised. The average number of individuals to each separate occupation, affords another proof of this, being 4½ in Hull, against 5½ in Pendleton. It will further be observed that the rental of cottage-houses in Hull, appears to be very moderate. The average is 2s. 1d. per week for houses, 1s. 5d. for chambers, and 1s. 2d. for cellars. In Manchester and Salford, the average weekly rent of houses was 2s. 11d., and in the Dukenfield district, 2s. 7d.

Upon the condition of these dwellings so much both of the habits and character of the people depends, that it would be most desirable to compare the state of drainage, &c., in Hull, with that in other places; but unfortunately few materials for such a comparison exist. The Leeds town council (who have set an example worthy of all imitation,) recorded, in their first table, the state of sewerage,* but were only able

* See vol. ii., page 406.

Street or District.		Number of each distinct Entrance.		Cellar, House, or Room.		Name of Parent, or of any Independent Individual.		Country.		Occupation of Adults, viz., 21 and upwards.		Partly or wholly out of Work.		Resident Population.		Under Twenty-One Years of Age.		Remarks.																								
Atainments of both Adults and Minors.		Can Read.	Can Write.	Can Cipher.	Can Sew.	Mark if Tested.	Adults or Minors, A. or M.		Denomination of Sect.		Attendance Regular or Irregular, or not at all.		Are there any Books in the House.		Dwelling Comfortable, Midding, or Uncomfortable.		Dwelling Clean, Midding, or Dirty.		Dwelling Well, Moderately, or Ill-furnished.		Total Weekly Payment for Schooling of Children.		Weekly Rent.		Number of Rooms in the Dwelling.		Number of Sleeping Rooms.		Number of Beds.		Sufficient or Insufficient Supply of Water.		State of Drainage.		How long has the Family been resident in the Town or Parish.		Does the head of the Family belong to any Benefit Society.		Rate of Earnings now.		Rate of Earnings 7 to 10 years ago.	
							Males.		Females.		Never have been at School.		Of Adults, the Sex only to be marked.		Of Minors the Age also.		Males.		Females.		Age of Non-Resident Minors.		Day or Evening, and Sunday School only.		Day or Evening, and Sunday School only.		Regularly instructed at home.		Attendance Regular or Irregular.		Occupation of Minors.		Now in Receipt of Wages.		Day or Evening, and Sunday School only.		Day or Evening, and Sunday School only.		Regularly instructed at home.		Age of leaving School.	

to obtain this for half the number of streets. In the case of Table VI., appended to this report, the information does not come from any official source, but if the information given to the agent of the Society be tolerably correct, Hull may be considered not unfavourably situated in this respect.

In estimating the *comfort* of a dwelling, so much depends upon the peculiar idea of comfort entertained by the agent employed in the investigation, that no comparison in this respect can be instituted between different towns, where as in the case of Manchester and Hull, different individuals conducted the inquiries. All that can be done, is to refer to the Table VII., and to quote the following remarks from the agent's report. "The word *comfortable* must always be a vague and varying epithet, to which it is impossible to attach any precise definition. In filling up this column, I was guided by observing the condition of the dwelling apart from any consideration of order, cleanliness, or furniture. If I considered it capable of being made comfortable by the tenant, I set it down accordingly; if it were damp, the flooring bad, and the walls ill-conditioned, I reported it uncomfortable. The dwellings in Hull have a decided advantage over those of Manchester, comparing a similar class in the two places; the rents are lower, the streets cleaner, and the houses better ventilated, while they are much less frequently built in courts." In round numbers it may be stated that two-fifths of the houses of the work-people are comfortable, one-fifth only middling, and two-fifths uncomfortable.

Tables VIII. and IX., contain information as to the sleeping accommodation in the dwellings of the working population, in all the cases where it could be ascertained, which only amounted to about two-thirds of the whole; for this was a point on which it was found peculiarly difficult to elicit replies. On the first of these tables, no remark is offered. The results shown in Table IX. are remarkable and painful. They call for little comment, but for much reflection. It appears that in 29 per cent., or not far from one-third of the ascertained cases, there were more than three individuals to one bed; that in 13 per cent. there were 5 and upwards; and in 103 cases, 7 and upwards to one bed! This proportion does not appear greatly to differ from that which prevailed in the Ashton and Dukinfield district, and exhibits a state of things to which it is particularly desirable to direct public attention, as not only a signal proof of destitution and discomfort, but a fruitful and certain source of evil.

Table X. shows that only one-third of all the families from whom information was obtained, were connected with benefit societies. And it may not be out of place to remark that the majority of clubs and societies to which the working classes attach themselves, are not enrolled under the Act of Parliament, affording consequently little security to the subscribers, even when the principles upon which they are based, do not happen to be unsound.

Table XI. From this it would appear that only in one-fourth of the ascertained cases, were the houses of the poor entirely destitute of books; and even these were occasionally visited by gratuitous distributors of tracts.*

* In Bristol, the proportion was about the same. In the parishes in Westminster reported in this Journal, vol. iii., page 14, it was 37 per cent., or considerably more than one-third.

TABLE I.—Age and Country of the Population.

Families Occupying.	Number of Heads of Families belonging to each Country.						Number of Resident Population.			Non-Resident Minors, Children of Resident heads of Families.
	English.	Irish.	Scotch.	Welsh.	Foreigners.	Total.	Adults above 21.	Minors under 21.	Total.	
Houses .	6,035	80	84	5	35	6,239*	16,389	13,515	29,904	606
Chambers .	2,338	97	53	4	11	2,503	4,818	3,119	7,937	30
Cellars .	14	..	1	15	25	19	44	..
Total .	8,387	177	138	9	46†	8,757	21,232	16,653	37,885	636

* The number of unoccupied houses, in addition to the above, was 195, exclusive of warehouses, offices, and other premises in which no person slept.

† Of this number there are 15 Germans, 7 Italians, 5 Poles, 4 Swedes, 3 Prussians, 3 Dutchmen, 2 Americans, 2 Norwegians, 2 French, 1 Hungarian, 1 West Indian, and 1 not ascertained.

Supplement 1 to TABLE I.

Occupation of Non-Resident Minors.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Domestic Servants	3	239	242
Sailors	126	..	126
At School	15	21	36
With relatives at distance	6	26	32
Apprentices, or learning business .	53	22	75
Married	4	8	12
Soldiers	1	..	1
With the parish	1	1	2
	209	317	526
Not ascertained	110
Total	636

Supplement 2 to TABLE I.

Among the Population were found	Males.	Females.	Total.
Imbecile, Adults (all)	7	10	17
Idiots, Minors (all)	4	3	7
Deaf and Dumb, Adults	2	2	4
„ „ Minors	3	4	7
Blind, Adults	5	6	11
„ „ Minors	4	3	7
Total	25	28	53

TABLE II.—Occupation of Adults.

OCCUPATION.	COUNTRY.					Total.	SEX.	
	English.	Scotch.	Irish.	Welsh.	Foreigners.		Males.	Females.
Labourers and others employed about the docks ^a	838	4	74	21	7	944	942	2
Sailors ^b	1,257	3	10	31	20	1,321	1,321	..
Building trades ^c	696	9	23	..	2	730	730	..
Clothing trades ^d	1,249	20	13	..	3	1,285	802	483
Domestic Servants	894	3	5	1	1	904	58	846
Agricultural and other out-of-door employments ^e	558	12	48	..	4	622	619	3
Others employed at home ^f	884	8	11	..	1	904	114	790
Clerks, Shopmen, &c. ^g	491	4	5	..	6	506	486	20
Merchants and Professional Men	332	6	3	..	3	345	344	1
Retail Brewers ^h	58	1	1	60	30	30
Factory hands ⁱ	35	1	1	37	14	23
Shopkeepers, Retailers, and Agents	1,261	24	20	1	38	1,344	1,138	206
Handicrafts ^j	1,654	54	33	1	9	1,751	1,708	43
Licensed Victuallers	204	204	180	24
Miscellaneous ^k	312	10	10	..	3	335	310	25
Prostitutes keeping and living in brothels ^l	83	..	3	86	..	86
Rivermen, Boatmen, &c. ^m	254	..	1	255	254	1
Hand-weavers ⁿ	33	..	2	35	35	..
Not ascertained	59	1	1	61	38	23
Total Employed	11,152	160	263	56	98	11,729	9,123	2,606
Total Unemployed						9,503	709	8,794
Total						21,232	9,832	11,400

^a Including lumpers, stowers, ship-deliverers, truckmen, stajthmen, dock-porters, dock-gatemens, gold-dusters, and corn-meters. ^b Of this number 573 were at sea at the time of this inquiry, viz. 558 English, 10 Scotch, and 4 foreigners, master-mariners and mates inclusive. ^c Stonemasons, bricklayers, carpenters, joiners, plumbers, glaziers, painters, brick-makers, and hodmen are comprised in this class.

^d Including tailors, shoemakers, hatters, stocking-makers, dress, stay, and bonnet-makers, milliners, and sempstresses. ^e Gardeners, grooms, carters, coachmen, guards, and hackney-coachmen, railway-labourers, coal-carriers, porters and hawkers, are included. ^f Teachers, washerwomen, manglers, clothes-cleaners, charwomen, hucksters, with bakers and butchers, (not being principals,) and all persons pursuing any calling at home from which an income was derived, and which did not belong to any other class, are comprised under this class. ^g Including persons employed in warehouses, shops, and offices, except principals, who are arranged under the heads to which they respectively belong. ^h These are what are commonly denominated beer-shops. ⁱ Some of these are employed in flax-spinning: the great proportion of factory hands reside in the out-townships, to which this inquiry did not extend. ^j Persons subsisting by manual labour, and not belonging to any other class, and not being principals, nor keeping a shop, are included in this class. ^k Under this head are arranged custom-house and excise-officers, editors, policemen, midwives, and nurses. ^l None but those who acknowledge themselves of this description, or whose character was notorious in the neighbourhood, have been included in this number. ^m Including pilots, persons employed in sloops trading up the river, fishermen, ferrymen, and lightermen. ⁿ Winders are reckoned with these, nearly the whole of whom are employed in making sail-cloth.

^o Stonemasons, bricklayers, carpenters, joiners, plumbers, glaziers, painters, brick-makers, and hodmen are comprised in this class. ^p Teachers, washerwomen, manglers, clothes-cleaners, charwomen, hucksters, with bakers and butchers, (not being principals,) and all persons pursuing any calling at home from which an income was derived, and which did not belong to any other class, are comprised under this class. ^q Including persons employed in warehouses, shops, and offices, except principals, who are arranged under the heads to which they respectively belong. ^r These are what are commonly denominated beer-shops. ^s Some of these are employed in flax-spinning: the great proportion of factory hands reside in the out-townships, to which this inquiry did not extend. ^t Persons subsisting by manual labour, and not belonging to any other class, and not being principals, nor keeping a shop, are included in this class. ^u Under this head are arranged custom-house and excise-officers, editors, policemen, midwives, and nurses. ^v None but those who acknowledge themselves of this description, or whose character was notorious in the neighbourhood, have been included in this number. ^w Including pilots, persons employed in sloops trading up the river, fishermen, ferrymen, and lightermen. ^x Winders are reckoned with these, nearly the whole of whom are employed in making sail-cloth.

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^{ai} Stonemasons, bricklayers, carpenters, joiners, plumbers, glaziers, painters, brick-makers, and hodmen are comprised in this class. ^{aj} Teachers, washerwomen, manglers, clothes-cleaners, charwomen, hucksters, with bakers and butchers, (not being principals,) and all persons pursuing any calling at home from which an income was derived, and which did not belong to any other class, are comprised under this class. ^{ak} Including persons employed in warehouses, shops, and offices, except principals, who are arranged under the heads to which they respectively belong. ^{al} These are what are commonly denominated beer-shops. ^{am} Some of these are employed in flax-spinning: the great proportion of factory hands reside in the out-townships, to which this inquiry did not extend. ^{an} Persons subsisting by manual labour, and not belonging to any other class, and not being principals, nor keeping a shop, are included in this class. ^{ao} Under this head are arranged custom-house and excise-officers, editors, policemen, midwives, and nurses. ^{ap} None but those who acknowledge themselves of this description, or whose character was notorious in the neighbourhood, have been included in this number. ^{aq} Including pilots, persons employed in sloops trading up the river, fishermen, ferrymen, and lightermen. ^{ar} Winders are reckoned with these, nearly the whole of whom are employed in making sail-cloth.

^{as} Stonemasons, bricklayers, carpenters, joiners, plumbers, glaziers, painters, brick-makers, and hodmen are comprised in this class. ^{at} Teachers, washerwomen, manglers, clothes-cleaners, charwomen, hucksters, with bakers and butchers, (not being principals,) and all persons pursuing any calling at home from which an income was derived, and which did not belong to any other class, are comprised under this class. ^{au} Including persons employed in warehouses, shops, and offices, except principals, who are arranged under the heads to which they respectively belong. ^{av} These are what are commonly denominated beer-shops. ^{aw} Some of these are employed in flax-spinning: the great proportion of factory hands reside in the out-townships, to which this inquiry did not extend. ^{ax} Persons subsisting by manual labour, and not belonging to any other class, and not being principals, nor keeping a shop, are included in this class. ^{ay} Under this head are arranged custom-house and excise-officers, editors, policemen, midwives, and nurses. ^{az} None but those who acknowledge themselves of this description, or whose character was notorious in the neighbourhood, have been included in this number. ^{ba} Including pilots, persons employed in sloops trading up the river, fishermen, ferrymen, and lightermen. ^{bb} Winders are reckoned with these, nearly the whole of whom are employed in making sail-cloth.

TABLE III.—Occupation of Minors.*

OCCUPATIONS.	AGE.				Total.	SEX.	
	Under 5.	5 and under 10.	10 and under 15.	15 and under 21.		Males.	Females.
Domestic Servants	8	144	706	858	28	830
Agricultural and other out-door employments ^{b)}	..	5	28	76	109	102	7
Factory hands ^{c)}	5	41	39	76	34	42
Others employed at home ^{d)}	13	68	81	14	67
Mechanics & Handicrafts	8	149	561	718	682	36
Building trades ^{e)}	3	61	197	261	260	1
Clothing trades	1	65	335	401	179	222
River and Boat-hands ^{f)}	13	11	24	24	..
Clerks, Warehousemen, &c.	1	56	322	379	362	17
Errand-boys, &c.	7	198	74	279	276	3
Sailors ^{g)}	49	131	180	179	1
Labourers (Dock) ^{h)}	2	16	50	68	68	..
Miscellaneous	1	6	19	26	24	2
Professional	14	14	14	..
Prostitutes living in brothels	1	20	21	..	21
Sweeps	2	6	11	19	19	..
Hand-weavers	2	9	11	9	2
Not ascertained	3	22	25	25	..
Not employed in business	4,948	4,134	2,879	1,142	3,550	2,299	1,251
Total	4,948	4,177	3,730	3,798	16,653	7,902	8,751

^a Young persons learning business, or earning wages only, are recorded among the employed in this Table.

^b This class includes gardeners, persons employed in husbandry, carters, coachmen, grooms, railway labourers, hawkers, coal carriers, and porters.

^c Some of these are employed in flax-spinning.

^d Persons employed in washing, mangling, and charring, with bakers and butchers, not being principals, are comprised under this head.

* This class comprises stonemasons, bricklayers, carpenters, joiners, plumbers, glaziers, painters, brickmakers, and hodmen.

¹ Under this head are classed lighter boys, boat-hands, pilots, with hands employed in ferries and fishing smacks.

⁸ Of this number only 35 were from home at the time of this inquiry.

^b Persons employed in the loading and unloading of vessels, and in attending the arrival and departure of steam-boats, are comprised in this class.

TABLE IV.—*Length of Residence of the Heads of Families.*

Length of Residence.	Number of Heads of Families.
Born in the Township.	1,905
Having resided above 10 years in the Township	4,389
" " " 5 and under 10 years in the Township	500
" " " 1 " 5 "	750
" " less than 1 Year "	112
Not ascertained	1,101
Total . . .	8,757

TABLE V.—*Annual or Weekly Rental of the Dwellings.*

Dwellings.	Houses.	Rooms.	Cellars.	Total.
Paying an annual rent of £2.	1	1
„ „ of £2 and under £3	7	41	..	48
„ „ of £3 „ £4	136	278	..	414
„ „ of £4 „ £5	771	305	..	1,076
„ „ of £5 „ £6	696	154	2	852
„ „ of £6 „ £7	252	10	..	262
„ „ of £7 „ £8	78	78
„ „ of £8 „ £9	7	2	..	9
„ „ of £9 „ £10	3	3
Paying a weekly Rent under 1s.	7	81	4	92
* „ „ of 1s. and under 1s. 3d. . .	15	491	5	511
„ „ of 1s. 3d. „ 1s. 6d. . .	17	199	..	216
„ „ of 1s. 6d. „ 2s. . . .	53	237	..	290
„ „ of 2s. „ 2s. 6d. . . .	22	44	..	66
„ „ of 2s. 6d. „ 3s. . . .	1	9	..	10
„ „ of 3s. and upwards.	11	..	11
Not ascertained*	4,174	641	3	4,818
Total	6,239	2,503	15	8,757

* In this number are included the whole of the dwellings of the middling and upper classes, from whom no information was sought in reference to the subject of this Table.

TABLE VI. *Drainage and Supply of Water.*

Description.	Houses.	Rooms.	Cellars.	Total.
DRAINAGE :—				
Adequate.	2,916	1,197	3	4,116
Inadequate	367	294	10	671
None	185	114	..	299
Not ascertained* . .	2,771	898	2	*3,671
Total	6,239	2,503	15	8,757
SUPPLY OF WATER :				
Ample	3,804	1,140	13	4,957
Insufficient	123	86	..	209
None	63	44	..	107
Not ascertained* . .	2,249	1,233	2	3,484
Total	6,239	2,503	15	8,757

* The bulk of these belonged to the wealthier classes, and the drains in the neighbourhood appeared to be in good condition.

TABLE VII. *Comfort, Furniture, and Cleanliness of Dwellings.*

Description.	Houses.	Rooms.	Cellars.	Total.
Respectable	2,809	91	..	2,900
Comfortable	1,439	547	..	1,986
Middling	448	673	10	1,131
Uncomfortable . . .	1,181	869	5	2,055
Not ascertained . .	362	323	..	685
Total	6,239	2,503	15	8,757
Respectable	2,809	91	..	2,900
Amplv furnished. . .	493	123	..	616
Tolerably	1,896	941	..	2,837
Ill	489	904	14	1,407
Not ascertained . .	552	444	1	997
Total	6,239	2,503	15	8,757
Respectable	2,809	91	..	2,900
Clean	1,639	898	7	2,544
Tolerably clean . . .	915	735	6	1,656
Dirty	430*	534†	2	966
Not ascertained . .	446	245	..	691
Total	6,239	2,503	15	8,757

* Of these 33 were filthy.

† Of these 41 were filthy.

NOTE.—For TABLES VIII. and IX. see p. 221.

TABLE X. *Statement of the Number of Heads of Families belonging to Benefit Societies, exclusive of such as have funds in the Savings Bank.*

Heads of Families Resident in	Belonging to Benefit Societies.	Not belonging to Benefit Societies.	Not Ascertained.	Total.
Houses	1,153	1,849	3,227	6,239
Rooms	462	1,647	394	2,503
Cellars	15	15
Total	1,615	*3,496	3,646	8,757

* Of this number 97 stated that they had subscribed to various clubs, which owing to want of funds, or other causes, had been broken up.

TABLE XI. *Showing the extent to which the Habitations were supplied with Books.*

Dwellings	Houses.	Rooms.	Cellars.	Total.
In which a Bible or Testament and other books were found	2,253	1,294	8	3,555
In which a Bible only was found . .	34	39	..	73
In which a Testament only was found .	42	33	2	77
In which no books of any kind were found	484	734	5	1,223
Not ascertained	3,426	403	..	3,829*
Total	6,239	2,503	15	8,757

* Of these 2,900 were among the higher class of dwellings, and may therefore be considered to possess books; but the question was not put, as it was found at the outset of the inquiry frequently to occasion offence.

The greater part of the remaining 929 had one or more religious tracts, which they were in the habit of receiving from visitors, who called periodically to exchange them for others gratuitously.

TABLE VIII.—Number of Sleeping Rooms as compared with the number of Inmates in each Dwelling.

Dwellings having	Dwellings having												Total.
	1 In-mate.	2 In-mates.	3 In-mates.	4 In-mates.	5 In-mates.	6 In-mates.	7 In-mates.	8 In-mates.	9 In-mates.	10 In-mates.	11 In-mates.	12 In-mates.	13 In-mates.
One Sleeping Room	232	503	507	387	284	208	99	59	33	26	17	12	2
Two Sleeping Rooms	12	201	344	347	290	223	139	95	40	21	13	7	..
Three „ „	2	4	11	16	15	10	14	10	10	6	3	..
More than three Sleeping Rooms.	2	4	2	3	4	2	1
	244	711	855	745	590	486	230	172	90	60	40	24	3
	Not ascertained												1
	Total												4,231
	Not ascertained												4,526
	Total												8,757

Among the superior classes no questions were asked in reference to the contents of this Table, and among the working classes many declined to give any information on the subject.

TABLE IX.—Number of Beds in each Dwelling compared with the number of Inmates.

Families	Dwellings having													Total.
	1 female Inmate.	2 Inmates.	3 Inmates.	4 Inmates.	5 Inmates.	6 Inmates.	7 Inmates.	8 Inmates.	9 Inmates.	10 Inmates.	11 Inmates.	12 Inmates.	13 Inmates.	
Having one bed	288	692	529	367	240	132	51	39	9	2	2	2,351
two beds	..	125	234	178	294	279	115	97	37	14	5	1,378
three „	9	17	27	43	23	25	24	19	14	5	..	215
four „	2	2	2	4	3	2	2	20
	288	817	772	562	563	454	189	163	72	39	24	19	2	3,964
	Not ascertained													4,793
	Total													8,757

parties objected to give information on the contents of this Table, and the particulars here given were frequently elicited by leading the question indirectly to the subject; in several instances where parties were very poor, they declined to give information from a sense of shame.

Abstract from a Register of Accidents in the Coal Mines of the Chamber and Werneth Company, at Oldham, during the Year ended October, 1841. By JOSEPH FLETCHER, Esq., Hon. Sec.

[Read before the Statistical Society of London, February 25th, 1842.]

A REGISTER of the injuries received in the course of their employment by the under-ground labourers of a single mining firm, for only one year, is scarcely a document to supply *results* in themselves worthy of serious examination by the Statistical Society of London. It is not for these results that it is now brought before its notice, but in the hope that the example of an accurate observation of the casualties to which mining labourers are subject will find imitators so numerous, as to afford data equally interesting to humanity and science, and useful to the miners themselves, if not in warning them against danger, at least in enabling them to form safe provident institutions, to mitigate the evils resulting from the accidents to which they are subject.

This register, commenced without any express view to statistical purposes, applies to sixteen coal-pits in the vicinity of Oldham, in the east of Lancashire, where the inflammable gases seldom cause serious annoyance, and scarcely ever produce those dreadful explosions which, in some districts, destroy at one blast nearly every human being in a pit. Even of these worst disasters, the Commons' Committee on Accidents in Mines, in 1835, found no available record, the importance of supplying which will appear still greater than it did to that Committee, after a glance at the following statement of casualties in a district exempt from evils of this magnitude, and in mines worked on the most liberal scale, so as to reduce the danger of accident far below the average, even in this favoured district.

This statement is derived from the record kept at Oldham, by the Chamber and Werneth Colliery Company, of all the accidents requiring surgical assistance, which have occurred in their sixteen pits, from the end of October, 1840, to the end of October, 1841; a record which they have been enabled to make in providing gratuitous surgical assistance for their people. The amount of casualty here presented is decidedly small for a concern of such extent; and the company's chief agent regards the accidents as of a nature which they could not by any means prevent. Indeed the endeavours made by this company, in instructing their people in the use of the safety-lamp; in laying down good regulations, and providing respectable underlookers; and in the outlay of money to make their works and gearing good and secure, are worthy of universal imitation.

Although the number in each pit varied somewhat in the course of the year, the total number in the employment of the company underwent scarcely any change; but the period being one of slack trade, in which many of the colliers were not working full time, the exposure to casualty, it may be presumed, was proportionately less.

A List of the Pits of the Chamber and Werneth Company, and a Return of the Number of Persons employed in them.—Friday, Dec. 11, 1840.

Progressive Number.	Name of each Pit.	No. of Children under 13 yrs.	No. of Young Persons between 13 and 21 years.	No. of Persons above 21 years.	Total
1	No. 1, Chamber . . .	7	30	37	74
2	No. 2 „
3	No. 3 „ . . .	3	23	34	60
4	No. 4 „ . . .	8	29	40	77
5	Trunley Pit	3	1	6	10
6	No. 1, Knowle	6	5	8	19
7	No. 2 „	6	2	3	11
8	No. 2, Broadway Lane	3	9	6	18
9	Little Pit „	2	..	6	8
10	No. 2, Hurst Lane . .	4	10	11	25
11	No. 3 „	5	11	17	33
12	No. 4 „	9	11	23	43
13	No. 5 „	5	5	10	20
14	No. 6 „	4	3	5	12
15	Fancy Pit	7	24	21	52
16	Bowling Green	9	18	22	49
17	New Engine	6	9	18	33
Total		87	190	267	544

Accidents demanding Surgical Assistance, which have occurred in the Pits of the Chamber and Werneth Colliery Company, Oldham, during the Year ending October 31, 1841.

ADULTS.

No.	Age.	Occupation.	Date.	Nature of Injury.
			1840.	
1	43	Coal-getter	4 Nov..	{ Foot crushed by shale falling from roof, and one toe broken.
2	25	„	18 „ .	{ A pick struck into his hand.
3	21	Waggoner	21 „ .	{ Testicles injured by waggon running down brow.
			1841.	
4	23	„	7 Jan..	Fingers crushed by waggon.*
5	40	Coal-getter	11 March	Back and loins injured by roof falling.
6	35	„	30 „ .	Do. Do. Do.
7	55	„	3 April.	Crushed by the roof falling.
8	30	„	„ „	Killed by the roof falling on him while at work.
9	40	„	6 „	Foot crushed by a piece of stone falling from roof.
10	60	„	26 „	Thumb broken by a stone falling on him.
11	Ad.	„	20 May.	Wrist injured by waggon running down jig brow.
12	„	„	„ „	Not stated.
13	60	„	7 June.	Ankle put out by coal falling on it while at work.
14	60	„	19 „	{ Hand crushed by a stone falling from roof while drawing posts out.
15	26	„	6 July.	Leg crushed by roof falling.
16	23	„	15 „	Knee dislocated by a stone falling from the roof.
17	30	„	2 Aug..	Killed by roof falling while drawing props.†
18	30	„	25 „	Hand crushed by roof falling.
19	23	Waggoner	9 Sept..	Toe crushed by coal falling out of waggon.
20	20	„	13 „	Head cut by stone falling from side of shaft.
21	60	Coal-getter	14 „	{ Wrist fractured.—Was attempting to stop a waggon that was going down brow.
22	34	„	20 Oct..	Shoulder hurt by slipping off plates.‡
23	29	{ Hooker-on at bottom}	29 „	Head injured by fall of bolt from the cages.

* The slipper getting off, threw the edge of waggon against the roof.

† The roof being loose, and the man not taking the precaution to set a prop near to himself, was killed immediately after knocking out the farther prop.

‡ Was pushing some rails over the plates, and they being wet at the time, he slipped.

Accidents in the Pits of the Chamber and Werneth Colliery Company—continued.

YOUNG PERSONS.

No.	Age.	Occupation.	Date.	Nature of Injury.
			1840.	
1	16	Waggoner	11 Nov..	Crushed by roof falling: loins and kidneys injured.
2	13	"	20 "	Knocked down by a waggon in jig brow, and legs hurt.
3	17	"	9 Dec..	Arm crushed by a waggon in the bottom.*
4	13	"	16 "	Finger-end cut off by the roof falling on the edge of waggon.
5	14	"	23 "	Fingers crushed.†
6	14	"	"	Hand crushed.—His hand caught between door-place and waggon.
			1841.	
7	16	"	7 Jan..	Leg fractured by jig-chain getting round it.‡
8	19	"	2 June.	Waggon ran to the bottom of the brow, and crushed his finger.
9	16	"	17 "	Leg bruised by a waggon running down brow.
10	19	"	24 "	Hand crushed.
11	13	"	7 Aug..	Knocked down by a waggon in the brow, and cut by the wheel in the loins.
12	16	"	4 Sept..	Ankle injured.
13	15	"	10 "	Knee injured by a stone falling.
14	13	"	21 "	Three of his fingers hurt by a waggon against the roof.§
15	17	"	6 Oct..	Knee injured by falling on the rails.—Fell while pushing at a waggon.
16	17	"	"	Hip crushed, and other bruises in the hands and legs.—Lamed by the roof falling.
17	18	"	11 "	Fingers crushed by a waggon.
18	14	"	16 "	" " " " ¶
19	17	"	49 "	Killed by the roof falling on him while at work.—Worked with his father.

CHILDREN.

			1840.	
1	11	Waggoner	31 Oct..	Run against waggon down jig, and bruised his leg.
			1841.	
2	9	"	14 Jan..	One of his fingers cut off.
3	12	"	23 April.	Crushed by waggon in the brow.**
4	12	"	11 May.	Fingers crushed between two waggons.
5	11	"	21 "	Fingers broken by waggon against the roof.
6	11	"	29 "	Leg fractured by a stone falling from the roof.
7	12	"	14 July.	Thigh fractured, and other bruises.††
8	12	"	11 Sept..	Leg crushed by roof falling.

OCCUPATION OF THE PERSONS INJURED.

	Adults.	Young Persons.	Children.	Total
Coal-getters	18	18
Waggoners	4	19	8	31
Hooker-on at the bottom of the shaft . .	1	1
	23	19	8	50

* The lad fell as he was taking the waggon to the shaft.

† In attempting to stop a waggon going down brow, he fell, and it went over his hand.

‡ The leg was taken off immediately below the knee by the surgeons the same day.

§ Owing to the rail being broken, the waggon was thrown upwards.

¶ The waggon slipped off the rails, and was thrown upwards against the roof.

** Crushed between the waggon-wheel and rail while lifting up the waggon.

†† The slipper got off the waggon that was following him, and crushed him.

‡‡ Cleaning the waggon-road, when the shale from the roof fell.

CAUSES OF INJURY.

	Adults.	Young Persons.	Children.	Total.
From falls of shale, rock, or other materials from the roof, producing injuries, which in three cases were fatal	14	5	3	22
From the waggons, by various modes of crushing and contusion in the jig-brows, and other parts of the subterranean ways	5	13	5	23
From becoming entangled with the jig-chain	1	..	1
From a fall on the rails	1	1
From a blow from a pick	1	1
From a fall of a bolt down the shaft	1	1
Not described	1	1
	23	19	8	50

CHARACTER OF INJURY.				
Deaths by crushing of the body under matter falling from the roof	2	1	..	3
Injuries to the lower limbs by crushing and contusion, under the various circumstances described	6	7	4	17
Injuries to the upper limbs by ditto	8	8	3	19
Injuries to the body by ditto	3	2	..	5
Injuries to the head from materials falling	2	2
Injuries from crushing, not particularly described	2	1	1	4
Total	23	19	8	50

Thus, out of the total number of 544, 50, or one in 11, have been under the hands of the surgeon in the course of the year, the proportion being about the same among all ages, although the fatal cases were all those of adult colliers, crushed in the progress of their work in removing the mineral deposit from its resting-place underneath insecure strata. It is, perhaps, a minority of the collieries of Great Britain that can produce so favourable a return. However this may be, the importance of collecting the statistics of the casualties occurring in mines cannot be over-rated, whether the facts be sought for the purpose of detecting the causes which lead to them, or in the hope of palliating the evils which are their result.

The record from which the preceding abstract is made cannot be regarded as a model of method, especially as the classes of accidents which its results exhibit, are those which occur merely in the ordinary course of under-ground labour, without any serious exposure to fire-damp, and without any instance of the most fatal class of accidents, viz., those which occur in the shafts; among which, such as result from winding men and boys over the pulley at the top of the pit, and dashing them down the shaft again, chiefly through the employment of children as engineers, have repeatedly occurred in this neighbourhood.

On Accidents upon the Railways in Great Britain. By C. R. WELD, Esq.

[Read before the Statistical Society of London, 18th April, 1842.]

A VOLUMINOUS Report lately presented to Parliament by the officers of the Railway Department, furnishes matter of so much general importance, that it has been thought a few of the facts laid before the Society in a concise manner would prove interesting. With this view, the returns have been reduced to a form calculated to meet the desired object, and the original tables have undergone all the analysis of which they are susceptible. The amount of traffic for the *whole* of the past year on the various railways has not been yet returned, but the returns for the half-year ending 1st July, 1841, are given, and are as follows: The number of persons carried on 50 railways amounted to 9,122,613, of whom 1,530,040 occupied first class carriages, 4,144,169 second class carriages, 2,357,745 third class carriages, and 1,090,659 carriages not classed.

The number of trains amounted to 99,422, which gives 91·3 persons to each train.

The lines on which the trains travel at the greatest speed are as follows:—

	Average Speed, exclusive of Stoppages.
Northern and Eastern	36 miles per hour.
Great Western	33 „
London and Brighton	30 „
Newcastle and North Shields	30 „
Midland Counties	29 „
North Midland	29 „
London and Birmingham	27 „

On the Leipsic and Dresden Railway the maximum speed is fixed at 10 minutes for every geographical mile, which is equal to 20½ miles per hour.

The receipts arising from the foregoing number of passengers amounted to 1,145,386*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.*, of which 281,087*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* was received from first class passengers, 231,046*l.* 3*s.* 7*d.* from second class passengers, 68,515*l.* 3*s.* 1*d.* from third class passengers, and 564,737*l.* 8*s.* 2*d.* from classes of passengers not described.

I shall now give the number of accidents that occurred, specifying their nature and consequence; it is, however, much to be regretted that the Act of Parliament does not enable the officers to obtain returns of accidents attended with danger to the public, unless personal injury is actually sustained.

CLASS I.

The following is the number of accidents attended with personal injury, arising from causes beyond the control of passengers, from August, 1840, to December 31, 1841:—

Nature of Accident.	Number of Accidents.	Killed.	Injured.
Collision	27	12	126
Engine or Train Breaking . .	9	4	14
Run off the Line	12	26	58
Run over	4	3	1
Fell off	5	1	4
Total	57	46	203

Of the 57 accidents, 28 occurred in the five latter months of 1840, and only 29 in the year 1841.

CLASS 2.

Accidents attended with personal injury to individuals owing to their own negligence or misconduct:—

Nature of Accident.	Number.	Killed.	Injured.
Run over	31	18	14
Fell off	5	2	3
Jumped off	15	2	13
Crushed by Engine	1	1	..
Total	52	23	30

Of which 16 occurred in the latter five months of 1840, and 36 in 1841.

CLASS 3.

Accidents attended with personal injury to servants of the Company under circumstances not involving danger to the public:—

Nature of Accident.	Number.	Killed.	Injured.
Collision	4	..	4
Fell off	14	5	10
Jumped off	7	3	3
Run over	46	30	19
Crushed	15	2	12
Boiler burst	2	3	10
Waggon overturned	2	..	2
Train run off the Line	1	1	..
Struck by a Bridge	4	2	2
Total	95	46	62

Of which 35 occurred in the latter five months of 1840, and 60 in 1841.

This return is incomplete, as the officers have not called upon Railway Companies to make returns of accidents which are not of a public nature.

By the foregoing returns it appears that the number of railway accidents has considerably diminished, as out of 204 accidents which occurred between August, 1840 and December, 1841, 125 took place in the past year, and 79 in the preceding five months; a relative decrease of exactly one-third.

Taking the number of passengers carried by the various railways in 1841 at double the number given for the first six months, or at 18,245,226, the accidents amount to 1 in 145,963; and it may be remarked that a large proportion of these occurred from slips in the embankments occasioned by continual wet weather.

A diminution has taken place in the accidents resulting from the collisions which have arisen chiefly from mismanagement or defective arrangements. A great proportion of the accidents which occurred in the end of 1840 and the beginning of 1841 were of this nature; no fewer than

17 accidents having occurred in eight months, from August, 1840, to April, 1841, from the single cause of collisions by trains or engines overtaking others travelling on the same line. During the nine months, from April, 1841, to January, 1842, only five collisions of this nature occurred, and those, with one exception, unattended with fatal consequences.

This diminution in the number of collisions appears too great to be the result of accident, and may fairly be attributed in a considerable degree to the more general adoption of the precautions suggested by the inspector-general, viz.: the erection of proper fixed signals at stations, the adoption of a better description of tail lamps and hand signals, and the enforcement of more attention to signals on the part of servants. The returns of the past year also show a marked diminution in the number of serious accidents occasioned by the misconduct of engine drivers. In the last five months of 1840, seven accidents occurred, by which eight were killed, and 31 injured; and in 1841, only three accidents occurred, by which two persons were killed, and three injured.

This decrease may be attributed to the beneficial results of more extended experience, and to the measures taken by several Railway Companies to raise the character of the engine drivers.

By a strange mistake in the drawing up of certain clauses in the acts of various Railway Companies, obliging them under a penalty, to keep the gates at level crossings closed *across the railway*, instead of *across the road*, accidents of a serious nature have occurred. In two instances, upon the Hull and Selby and Newcastle and Carlisle Railways, the lives of the gatekeepers fell a sacrifice to the former plan, which the Directors felt themselves obliged to adopt.

From the returns made by the different railway companies, it appears that there are 605 six-wheel engines, and 224 four-wheel engines, traversing an extent of 1,330½ miles. A general opinion is entertained that four-wheel engines are rather more unsteady, and subject to oscillatory movements, and especially to vertical movements, which, in extreme cases, may lead to jumping off the rails; while, on the other hand, six-wheel engines are thought to be less adapted for going round sharp curves: and this opinion is in some measure borne out by the fact that three accidents occurred to the four-wheel engines out of the total number of 224 engines of this description, arising from their having run off of the line, while no accident occurred to the six-wheel engines in this mode.

"The circumstance, however, that the two railways which, in proportion to their amount of passenger traffic, have been most free from serious accidents, viz. the London and Birmingham and the Grand Junction, use in the one case four-wheel and in the other six-wheel engines exclusively, appears quite sufficient to show that any attempt at legislative interference to enforce the adoption of any peculiar construction of engine would be, in the present state of experience upon the subject, altogether misplaced."

It appears from the returns given in the Appendix to the Report, that the practice of running tender foremost is universally pronounced to be dangerous, and that a very general opinion is expressed against propelling trains by an engine from behind, where it can be avoided,

NEW CORN DUTIES.

A Table of the New Duties on Foreign and British Plantation Corn, Flour, and Meal.

FOREIGN.

WHEAT.				WHEATEN FLOUR OR MEAL.				RYE, PEAS, AND BEANS.				BARLEY, Maize or Indian Corn, Buckwheat, Beer or Bugg.				OATS.				OATMEAL.			
Average Price per Qr.		Duty per Qr.		Average Price per Cwt.		Duty per Barrel of 156 lbs.		Average Price per Qr.		Duty per Qr.		Average Price per Qr.		Duty per Qr.		Average Price per Qr.		Duty per Qr.		Average Price per Cwt.			
s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.		
under 51	1	0	6 10 1/2	under 51	0	12 0 1/2	under 30	0	11 5	under 30	0	11 5	under 26	0	11 0	under 19	0	8 0	0	4 11 1/2			
51	53	0	6 6 1/2	51	53	0	11 5 1/2	30	32	0	10 6	30	32	0	10 0	19	21	0	7 0	0	4 3 1/2		
53	55	0	6 6 1/2	53	55	0	10 9 1/2	31	33	0	10 6	31	33	0	9 0	20	22	0	7 0	0	4 3 1/2		
55	57	0	6 6 1/2	55	57	0	10 9 1/2	32	34	0	10 6	32	34	0	9 0	21	23	0	6 0	0	3 8 1/2		
57	59	0	6 6 1/2	57	59	0	10 9 1/2	33	35	0	10 6	33	35	0	9 0	22	24	0	6 0	0	3 8 1/2		
59	61	0	5 10 1/2	59	61	0	9 7 1/2	34	36	0	10 6	34	36	0	9 0	23	25	0	5 0	0	3 13		
61	63	0	5 5 1/2	61	63	0	9 7 1/2	35	37	0	9 6	35	37	0	8 0	24	26	0	5 0	0	3 13		
63	65	0	4 19 1/2	63	65	0	8 5 1/2	36	38	0	9 6	36	38	0	8 0	25	27	0	4 0	0	2 5 1/2		
65	67	0	4 14 1/2	65	67	0	8 5 1/2	37	39	0	9 6	37	39	0	8 0	26	28	0	4 0	0	2 5 1/2		
67	69	0	4 5 1/2	67	69	0	7 2 1/2	38	40	0	8 6	38	40	0	8 0	27	29	0	3 0	0	1 10 1/2		
69	71	0	3 9 1/2	69	71	0	6 11 1/2	39	41	0	8 6	39	41	0	8 0	28	30	0	3 0	0	1 10 1/2		
71	73	0	3 3 1/2	71	73	0	6 6 1/2	40	42	0	8 6	40	42	0	8 0	29	31	0	2 0	0	0 7 1/2		
73	75	0	3 1 1/2	73	75	0	6 5 1/2	41	43	0	8 6	41	43	0	8 0	30	32	0	2 0	0	0 7 1/2		
75	77	0	2 9 1/2	75	77	0	6 5 1/2	42	44	0	8 6	42	44	0	8 0	31	33	0	1 0	0	0 7 1/2		
77	79	0	2 4 1/2	77	79	0	6 4 1/2	43	45	0	8 6	43	45	0	8 0	32	34	0	1 0	0	0 7 1/2		
79	81	0	2 0 1/2	79	81	0	6 3 1/2	44	46	0	8 6	44	46	0	8 0	33	35	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
81	83	0	2 0 1/2	81	83	0	6 3 1/2	45	47	0	8 6	45	47	0	8 0	34	36	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
83	85	0	2 0 1/2	83	85	0	6 3 1/2	46	48	0	8 6	46	48	0	8 0	35	37	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
85	87	0	2 0 1/2	85	87	0	6 3 1/2	47	49	0	8 6	47	49	0	8 0	36	38	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
87	89	0	2 0 1/2	87	89	0	6 3 1/2	48	50	0	8 6	48	50	0	8 0	37	39	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
89	91	0	2 0 1/2	89	91	0	6 3 1/2	49	51	0	8 6	49	51	0	8 0	38	40	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
91	93	0	2 0 1/2	91	93	0	6 3 1/2	50	52	0	8 6	50	52	0	8 0	39	41	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
93	95	0	2 0 1/2	93	95	0	6 3 1/2	51	53	0	8 6	51	53	0	8 0	40	42	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
95	97	0	2 0 1/2	95	97	0	6 3 1/2	52	54	0	8 6	52	54	0	8 0	41	43	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
97	99	0	2 0 1/2	97	99	0	6 3 1/2	53	55	0	8 6	53	55	0	8 0	42	44	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
99	101	0	2 0 1/2	99	101	0	6 3 1/2	54	56	0	8 6	54	56	0	8 0	43	45	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
101	103	0	2 0 1/2	101	103	0	6 3 1/2	55	57	0	8 6	55	57	0	8 0	44	46	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
103	105	0	2 0 1/2	103	105	0	6 3 1/2	56	58	0	8 6	56	58	0	8 0	45	47	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
105	107	0	2 0 1/2	105	107	0	6 3 1/2	57	59	0	8 6	57	59	0	8 0	46	48	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
107	109	0	2 0 1/2	107	109	0	6 3 1/2	58	60	0	8 6	58	60	0	8 0	47	49	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
109	111	0	2 0 1/2	109	111	0	6 3 1/2	59	61	0	8 6	59	61	0	8 0	48	50	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
111	113	0	2 0 1/2	111	113	0	6 3 1/2	60	62	0	8 6	60	62	0	8 0	49	51	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
113	115	0	2 0 1/2	113	115	0	6 3 1/2	61	63	0	8 6	61	63	0	8 0	50	52	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
115	117	0	2 0 1/2	115	117	0	6 3 1/2	62	64	0	8 6	62	64	0	8 0	51	53	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
117	119	0	2 0 1/2	117	119	0	6 3 1/2	63	65	0	8 6	63	65	0	8 0	52	54	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
119	121	0	2 0 1/2	119	121	0	6 3 1/2	64	66	0	8 6	64	66	0	8 0	53	55	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
121	123	0	2 0 1/2	121	123	0	6 3 1/2	65	67	0	8 6	65	67	0	8 0	54	56	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
123	125	0	2 0 1/2	123	125	0	6 3 1/2	66	68	0	8 6	66	68	0	8 0	55	57	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
125	127	0	2 0 1/2	125	127	0	6 3 1/2	67	69	0	8 6	67	69	0	8 0	56	58	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
127	129	0	2 0 1/2	127	129	0	6 3 1/2	68	70	0	8 6	68	70	0	8 0	57	59	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
129	131	0	2 0 1/2	129	131	0	6 3 1/2	69	71	0	8 6	69	71	0	8 0	58	60	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
131	133	0	2 0 1/2	131	133	0	6 3 1/2	70	72	0	8 6	70	72	0	8 0	59	61	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
133	135	0	2 0 1/2	133	135	0	6 3 1/2	71	73	0	8 6	71	73	0	8 0	60	62	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
135	137	0	2 0 1/2	135	137	0	6 3 1/2	72	74	0	8 6	72	74	0	8 0	61	63	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
137	139	0	2 0 1/2	137	139	0	6 3 1/2	73	75	0	8 6	73	75	0	8 0	62	64	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
139	141	0	2 0 1/2	139	141	0	6 3 1/2	74	76	0	8 6	74	76	0	8 0	63	65	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
141	143	0	2 0 1/2	141	143	0	6 3 1/2	75	77	0	8 6	75	77	0	8 0	64	66	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
143	145	0	2 0 1/2	143	145	0	6 3 1/2	76	78	0	8 6	76	78	0	8 0	65	67	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
145	147	0	2 0 1/2	145	147	0	6 3 1/2	77	79	0	8 6	77	79	0	8 0	66	68	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
147	149	0	2 0 1/2	147	149	0	6 3 1/2	78	80	0	8 6	78	80	0	8 0	67	69	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
149	151	0	2 0 1/2	149	151	0	6 3 1/2	79	81	0	8 6	79	81	0	8 0	68	70	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
151	153	0	2 0 1/2	151	153	0	6 3 1/2	80	82	0	8 6	80	82	0	8 0	69	71	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
153	155	0	2 0 1/2	153	155	0	6 3 1/2	81	83	0	8 6	81	83	0	8 0	70	72	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
155	157	0	2 0 1/2	155	157	0	6 3 1/2	82	84	0	8 6	82	84	0	8 0	71	73	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
157	159	0	2 0 1/2	157	159	0	6 3 1/2	83	85	0	8 6	83	85	0	8 0	72	74	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
159	161	0	2 0 1/2	159	161	0	6 3 1/2	84	86	0	8 6	84	86	0	8 0	73	75	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
161	163	0	2 0 1/2	161	163	0	6 3 1/2	85	87	0	8 6	85	87	0	8 0	74	76	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
163	165	0	2 0 1/2	163	165	0	6 3 1/2	86	88	0	8 6	86	88	0	8 0	75	77	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
165	167	0	2 0 1/2	165	167	0	6 3 1/2	87	89	0	8 6	87	89	0	8 0	76	78	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
167	169	0	2 0 1/2	167	169	0	6 3 1/2	88	90	0	8 6	88	90	0	8 0	77	79	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
169	171	0	2 0 1/2	169	171	0	6 3 1/2	89	91	0	8 6	89	91	0	8 0	78	80	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
171	173	0	2 0 1/2	171	173	0	6 3 1/2	90	92	0	8 6	90	92	0	8 0	79	81	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
173	175	0	2 0 1/2	173	175	0	6 3 1/2	91	93	0	8 6	91	93	0	8 0	80	82	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
175	177	0	2 0 1/2	175	177	0	6 3 1/2	92	94	0	8 6	92	94	0	8 0	81	83	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
177	179	0	2 0 1/2	177	179	0	6 3 1/2	93	95	0	8 6	93	95	0	8 0	82	84	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
179	181	0	2 0 1/2	179	181	0	6 3 1/2	94	96	0	8 6	94	96	0	8 0	83	85	0	0 0	0	0 7 1/2		
181	183	0	2 0 1/2																				

Comparative Chances of Life in different Classes of the Community.

The interesting report from the Poor Law Commissioners, the labour of their Secretary, on the Sanatory Condition of the Labouring Population of Great Britain, contains (p. 162—4) some tables, which, although they do not establish any exact laws of mortality, prove that remarkable differences exist between the various classes of society as to the age of death. These tables are compiled from deaths which took place in Manchester, during the year 1840; in Leeds, during the year 1840; in Liverpool, during the year 1840; in Bath, during the year 1839; in the Strand Union, during the year 1840; in the Kendal Union, during the year ended September 30th; in the County of Wilts, during the year 1840; and in Rutland, during the years, 1838, 1839, and 1840.

Proportion of Deaths which occurred at the undermentioned periods of Age among the different Classes of Society.

Periods of Age.	Gentry and Professional Persons.	Farmers, Traders, and Persons similarly circumstanced.	Agricultural and other Labourers, Artisans, and Servants.
Between 0 and 5 Years . . .	1 in 5	1 in 2½	1 in 2
„ 5 and 10 „ . . .	1 in 19	1 in 20	1 in 17
„ 10 and 20 „ . . .	1 in 19	1 in 23	1 in 20
Total Number of Deaths under 20 Years of Age	232	2,496	12,571
Proportion of Deaths under 20 to Total Deaths	1 in 3½	1 in 2	1 in 1½
Between 20 and 30 Years . . .	1 in 17	1 in 15	1 in 15
„ 30 and 40 „ . . .	1 in 14	1 in 12	1 in 17
„ 40 and 50 „ . . .	1 in 16	1 in 13	1 in 18
„ 50 and 60 „ . . .	1 in 12	1 in 14	1 in 20
Total Number of Deaths between 20 and 60 Years of Age	219	1,427	4,587
Proportion of Deaths from 20 to 60 to Total of Deaths	1 in 4	1 in 3½	1 in 4
Between 60 and 70 Years . . .	1 in 6	1 in 12	1 in 18
„ 70 and 80 „ . . .	1 in 6	1 in 14	1 in 23
„ 80 and 90 „ . . .	1 in 10	1 in 29	1 in 43
„ 90 and upwards . . .	1 in 115½	1 in 122	1 in 338
Total Number of Deaths above 60	351	913	2,439
Proportion of Deaths above 60 to Total of Deaths	1 in 2½	1 in 5	1 in 8
Total Number of Deaths at all Ages	802	4,836	19,597
		25,235	

PROCEEDINGS OF THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.

Sixth Ordinary Meeting, Monday, April 18, 1842.

Right Hon. Viscount SANDON, V. P., in the Chair.

The following gentlemen were elected fellows of the Society:—

T. M. Nelson, Esq.

Thomas Irving, Esq.

Theodore Compton, Esq.

Andrew Martin, Esq.

The Rev. Robert Everest was proposed as a candidate for admission into the Society.

A paper was read “On Accidents upon Railways.” By Charles Richard Weld, Esq. (see p. 226.)

Seventh Ordinary Meeting, Monday, May 16, 1842.

Lieut.-Colonel SYKES, V. P. in the Chair.

The Rev. Robert Everest was elected a Fellow of the Society.

A paper was read "On Accidents in Coal Mines in Belgium, and the Provident Institutions there established to alleviate the consequent sufferings." By C. R. Weld, Esq.

Eighth Ordinary Meeting, Monday, April 20th, 1842.

The Most Noble the Marquis of LANSDOWNE, President, in the Chair.

The Meeting was honoured by the presence of His Royal Highness Prince Albert, Patron of the Society, attended by the Most Noble the Marquis of Exeter and Sir Edward Bowater.

The following gentlemen were proposed as candidates for admission into the Society:—

Jenkin Jones, Esq.

George Carr Glyn, Esq.

John Noble, Esq.

Thomas Tooke, jun., Esq.

Joseph Hansom, Esq.

A paper was read "On the Municipal Institutions of the English Towns." By Joseph Fletcher, Esq., Hon. Sec. (*see* p. 97.)

MISCELLANEOUS.

Average Prices of Corn per Imperial Quarter in England and Wales, with the Rate of Duty on Foreign Wheat, during each week from the 25th of March, 1842, to the 25th of June, 1842; also during each Month, of and during the Quarters ended Lady Day and Midsummer, 1842, and the year 1841, together with the Septennial Average for the year ending Christmas, 1841. (Continued from p. 93.)

Date.	Wheat.			Weekly Average.				
	Weekly Average.	Aggregate Average.	Duty on Foreign.	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Beans.	Peas.
Weeks ended 1842.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
April 1 .	57 9	59 6	27 8	26 2	18 0	33 0	30 0	30 1
8 .	58 3	59 1	27 8	26 3	19 0	33 11	29 8	29 5
15 .	59 11	58 11	27 8	27 0	19 2	32 7	31 0	30 6
22 .	60 7	59 1	27 8	27 4	19 4	32 11	30 10	31 2
29 .	61 1	59 3	28 8	27 7	19 1	31 8	31 7	32 2
			27 8					
May 6 .	60 9	59 8	13 0	27 4	19 9	32 4	31 8	30 7
			13 0					
13 .	59 10	60 0	13 0	26 3	19 6	31 4	31 9	31 3
20 .	60 9	60 5	13 0	26 0	19 5	32 6	31 8	31 4
27 .	61 11	60 9	12 0	26 0	19 7	33 8	32 1	31 0
June 3 .	63 7	61 3	12 0	26 6	19 7	33 7	32 6	32 6
10 .	64 1	61 9	12 0	26 9	20 7	31 9	33 2	32 7
17 .	63 10	62 3	14 0	26 10	21 6	36 10	33 9	32 7
25 .	64 0	63 0	14 0	27 7	21 8	31 7	34 5	33 3
Months:—								
April . .	59 6	26 10	18 11	32 10	30 7½	30 8
May . .	60 9½	26 5	19 6½	32 5½	31 9½	31 0½
June . .	63 10½	26 11	20 10	33 2½	33 5½	32 8½
Quarters ended								
Midsummer, 1842 .	61 8	26 9	20 0	32 9	32 2	31 9

An Abstract of the Net Produce of the Revenue of Great Britain, in each of the Years and Quarters ended 5th April, 1841 and 1842.—(Continued from page 95.)

Description.	Years ended 5th January			
	1841	1842	Increase.	Decrease.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
Customs	19,700,225	19,876,130	175,905	..
Excise	12,530,036	12,464,609	..	65,427
Stamps	6,755,118	6,631,529	..	123,589
Taxes	3,989,431	4,411,619	422,188	..
Post-Office	414,000	504,000	90,000	..
Crown Lands	160,000	180,000	20,000	..
Miscellaneous	90,062	371,805	281,743	..
Imprest and other Monies	445,576	347,691	..	97,885
Repayments of Advances.	591,438	576,444	..	14,994
Total Income . . .	44,675,886	45,363,827	989,836	301,895

Description.	Quarters ending 5th April,			
	1841	1842	Increase.	Decrease.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
Customs	4,518,508	4,495,053	..	23,455
Excise	1,885,470	1,769,161	..	116,309
Stamps	1,677,404	1,599,487	..	77,917
Taxes	222,045	150,753	..	71,292
Post-Office	93,000	142,000	49,000	..
Crown Lands	32,500	50,500	18,000	..
Miscellaneous	49,126	323,193	274,067	..
Imprest and other Monies	32,151	25,714	..	6,437
Repayments of Advances.	98,996	164,671	65,675	..
Total Income . . .	8,609,200	8,720,532	406,742	295,410

Total Increase on the Year, £687,941: Total Increase on the Quarter, £111,332.

An Abstract of the Income and Charges of the Consolidated Fund, in each of the Quarters ended 5th of April, 1841 and 1842.—(Continued from p. 95.)

INCOME.			CHARGE.		
Description.	Quarters ended 5th April,		Description.	Quarters ended 5th April,	
	1841	1842		1841	1842
	£.	£.		£.	£.
Customs	3,527,826	4,081,450	Permanent Debt . . .	3,537,130	3,530,392
Excise	1,905,048	1,782,535	Terminable Annuities .	1,351,551	1,363,212
Stamps	1,677,404	1,599,487	Interest on Exchequer
Taxes	222,045	150,753	Bills	23,847	24,321
Post-Office	93,000	142,000	Sinking Fund
Crown Lands	32,500	50,500	Civil List	97,047	97,382
Miscellaneous	49,126	323,193	Other Charges	337,592	356,380
Imprest and other Monies	32,151	25,714	Charge for Advances .	282,050	15,112
Repayments of Advances	98,996	164,671			
Total	7,638,096	8,320,303	Total Charge . . .	5,629,217	5,366,799
Cash applied to pay off	220,000	240,000	The Surplus	2,238,879	2,953,504
Deficiency Bills			
Total	7,858,096	8,560,303	Total	7,858,096	8,560,303

An Account of the Quantities of Foreign and Colonial Wheat and Wheat-Flour Imported, Paid Duty, and Remaining in Warehouse, in each of the Months ending 5th April, May, and June, 1842.—(Continued from p. 94.)

Months ended	WHEAT.			WHEAT-FLOUR.		
	Imported.	Paid Duty.	Remaining in Warehouse at the end of the Month.	Imported.	Paid Duty.	Remaining in Warehouse at the end of the Month.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
5th April .	212,467	3,027	670,915	61,587	11,085	428,634
5th May .	154,646	15,932	805,325	29,789	87,218	369,131
5th June .	27, 30	81,885	984,756	61,225	85,281	340,643

Quarterly Average of the Weekly Liabilities and Assets of the Bank of England, in the Quarters ending 29th March, 23rd April, 21st May, and June, 1842, and in the corresponding Quarters of the preceding Year —(Continued from p. 94.)

Quarters ended	LIABILITIES.			ASSETS.		
	Circulation.	Deposits.	Total.	Securities.	Bullion.	Total.
1841.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
30th March.	16,537,000	7,212,000	23,749,000	22,328,000	4,339,000	26,667,000
27th April .	16,587,000	7,225,000	23,812,000	22,082,000	4,638,000	26,720,000
25th May .	16,615,000	7,248,000	23,863,000	21,817,000	4,921,000	26,738,000
June	16,632,000	7,218,000	23,850,000	21,601,000	5,089,000	26,690,000
1842.						
29th March .	16,952,000	8,657,000	25,609,000	22,586,000	6,125,000	28,711,000
23rd April .	17,235,000	8,283,000	25,518,000	21,898,000	6,590,000	28,488,000
21st May . .	17,536,000	8,045,000	25,581,000	21,366,000	7,039,000	28,405,000
18th June .	17,795,000	8,011,000	25,806,000	21,181,000	7,320,000	28,501,000

Aggregate Amount of Notes circulated in the United Kingdom, distinguishing those of Private and Joint-Stock Banks, with the Amount of Bullion in the Bank of England, during the Four Weeks preceding the 2nd and 30th April, 28th May, and June, 1842.—(Continued from p. 94.)

Description of Notes.	During Four Weeks preceding			
	2nd April, 1842.	30th April, 1842.	28th May, 1842.	25th June, 1842.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
England—Bank of England .	16,674,000	18,404,000	17,891,000	17,543,000
Private Banks . .	5,289,050	6,482,189	5,365,654	4,995,594
Joint-Stock Banks.	3,047,656	3,160,900	3,101,540	2,850,332
Scotland—Chartered Private & Joint-Stock Banks }	2,670,290	2,590,715	2,951,383	2,387,038
Ireland—Bank of Ireland . .	3,074,125	3,100,625	3,093,900	2,901,525
Private and Joint-Stock Banks . . }	2,259,556	2,111,322	1,963,152	1,769,184
Total . .	33,014,677	34,849,751	34,366,629	32,946,873
Bullion in the Bank of England	7,006,000	7,082,000	7,383,000	7,846,000

An Analysis of Bankruptcies in England and Wales, shewing the Counties and Trades in which the same occurred, during each of the Months of March, April, and May, 1842—(Continued from p. 96.)

COUNTIES.	March.	April.	May.	TRADES.	March.	April.	May.
Bedford	1	..				
Berks . . .	2	1	3				
Bucks				
Cambridge	2	1				
Chester . . .	4	4	2				
Cornwall	1	..				
Cumberland	1				
Derby . . .	2	..	2				
Devon . . .	1	..	2				
Dorset	1	1				
Durham . . .	4	3	1				
Essex . . .	1	3	..				
Gloucester . . .	3	3	2				
Hants . . .	2				
Hereford . . .	2	3	1				
Hertford	2	2				
Huntingdon				
Kent . . .	8	3	1				
Lancaster . . .	20	25	20				
Leicester . . .	4	1	1				
Lincoln . . .	1	2	4				
Middlesex . . .	27	35	31				
Monmouth	2	1				
Norfolk . . .	1	2	1				
Northampton . . .	3	3	1				
Northumberland . . .	2	3	1				
Nottingham . . .	1	4	1				
Oxford . . .	1				
Rutland				
Salop	2	2				
Somerset . . .	6	6	3				
Stafford . . .	8	5	3				
Suffolk . . .	1	2	..				
Surrey . . .	4	6	6				
Sussex . . .	1	2	4				
Warwick . . .	7	8	3				
Westmoreland	1	..				
Wilts	1	..				
Worcester . . .	5	3	5				
York . . .	4	19	9				
Wales . . .	2	1	5				
Total . . .	127	160	120				
				<i>Persons connected with Manufactures.</i>			
				Cotton Trade	5	6	3
				Woollen do. . . .	2	5	5
				Silk do. . . .	2	2	3
				Linen do.	1	..
				Iron Foundry	2	2	1
				Metal Wares	4	5	5
				Building Trades	9	11	3
				Miscellaneous	21	15	8
				<i>Agriculture.</i>			
				Farmers	1	2	1
				Corn, Hay, and Hop Dealers, Millers	9	8	8
				Cattle and Wool Dealers	3	1	..
				Coaches and Horses	4	8	3
				Brewers, Maltsters, and Distillers	4	10	1
				<i>Other.</i>			
				Innkeepers, Victuallers, Wine and Spirit Merchants	10	29	13
				Merchants, Bankers, Warehousemen, Agents, Brokers, Shipowners, and Wholesale Dealers	16	6	17
				Tradesmen, Shopkeepers, and Retail Dealers and Miscellaneous	35	49	49
				Total	127	160	120

QUARTERLY JOURNAL
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OCTOBER, 1842.

Statistics of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. By JAMES HEYWOOD, Esq. F.R.S., and the Rev. PROFESSOR POWELL, M.A., F.R.S.

[Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association, at Manchester, 25th June, 1842.]

Mr. James Heywood presented tables of the number of B.A. degrees conferred in the University of Oxford from 1518 to 1664, and in the University of Cambridge from 1500 to 1658. The former of these tables was copied from Wood's MSS. in the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford, and the latter from the Sloane MSS. (No. 1765) in the British Museum. Both these Tables are now condensed into one.

The increase of the number of B.A. degrees, during the reign of Queen Elizabeth and subsequent to that period, at both Universities, deserves attention, and their sympathy with the great ecclesiastical revolutions of the seventeenth century is remarkable.

The second table contains the number of degrees at Cambridge, from 1810 to 1840 inclusive, which has been compiled from the table of degrees in the Grace Book of the Senate of the University of Cambridge, and the supplementary column of the B.A. degrees at Oxford, during the same period, has been principally copied from a table by Professor Powell, of the number of students who have passed the B.A. examination at Oxford.

If the recent period of the 10 years, from 1830 to 1839, be referred to in the second table, it will be found that the number of B.A. degrees has hardly increased in the University of Cambridge, and that only a slight progressive increase in the number of the Bachelor of Arts' degrees conferred by the University of Oxford has taken place in the same period.

Such facts respecting the stationary number of the most essential degrees in the ancient Universities, still require to be accounted for. In Oxford, students, when they first come up to reside in the University, are obliged to live within the walls of their respective colleges, and the college buildings cannot possibly accommodate more than a certain limited number; but at Cambridge this restriction does not exist, for about one-third of the students reside in lodgings in the town, and it is considered a fortunate circumstance for freshmen to obtain rooms in the largest college of the University. At Cambridge, indeed, the number of students, who may be admitted to reside in the University, is unlimited, and this number ought certainly to increase with the increase of population and wealth in the country.

But in Cambridge the number of B.A. degrees has hardly increased at all from 1830 to 1839, and the numbers even from 1610 to 1640 show an extraordinary approximation to the recent numbers, from 1810 to 1840. He (Mr. Heywood) could only account for the want of increase in these numbers by supposing that the exclusive laws, by which the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge are governed, have diminished the confidence of the nation in the value of these two Universities as places of instruction.

The largest number of the ordinary degrees of B.A. are conferred at Cambridge in the month of January in each year, and the number of students taking mathematical honours at that time is now greater than the number who graduate with the ordinary B.A. testimonials. Thus in January, 1839, at the B.A. commencement in Cambridge, there were—

Degrees with Mathematical Honours.

Wranglers (1st class)	41
Senior Optimes (2nd class)	52
Junior Optimes (3rd class)	30
	<hr/>
	123
Degrees allowed	17
Ægrotats	2
	<hr/>
	142
	<hr/>

Ordinary Degrees.

Students who passed the ordinary examination .	119
Allowed to pass	4
Ægrotat	1
	<hr/>
	134
	<hr/>

Total with honours	142
ordinary degrees	134
	<hr/>
	276
	<hr/>

A much smaller number of students graduate at other periods of the year in Cambridge, when there is less competition for the B.A. degree.

In the third table, of the matriculations at Cambridge, from 1810 to 1839 inclusive, compiled from the grace-book of the University, it will be observed that the class of pensioners is the favourite class for entrance into the University, and that the number of fellow commoners is on the decline.

Parents probably find that their sons are more industrious as pensioners, and they wisely prefer the less ostentatious and less privileged class of the ordinary students of the University.

Sir Robert Peel, Bart., has recently sent a son to Trinity College, Cambridge, as a pensioner; and the number of fellow commoners may, it is hoped, gradually become limited almost entirely to the older class of students, who come to the Universities in later life, and often after marriage, and who are desirous to devote their time to preparation for the ordination examination, that they may be enabled to become clergymen of the established church.

In the fourth table, the noblemen and fellow commoners of Trinity College are classed with the pensioners under the general title of pen-

sioners, by which name they are statutablely known at first in the admission books, though the class is afterwards subdivided when they come into residence. Trinity College contains a larger proportion of lay students than any other large college at Cambridge, partly on account of the tenure of the fellowships, which may be held for seven years by laymen, and partly on account of the credit of the college with barristers and the lay aristocracy.

It will be observed that in 10 years, from 1831 to 1840, the number of annual admissions into Trinity College averages about 140, and that the number of testimonials given in each year by the college tutors at the same college for deacons' orders averages about 40; so that it may be fairly assumed that only one-third of the students of Trinity College are intended for the clerical profession.

Of the remaining two-thirds, about one-third go into the law, and the rest go into parliament, or to their estates in the country, or to literary occupations, or mercantile business, or are otherwise absorbed into the great moving tide of human kind.

The Rev. Professor Powell, M.A., F.R.S., observed to the section, that he was glad to see the attention of the Association called to this subject, because he thought it proper that whatever related to a public institution should receive a due share of public attention.

The paper which he was about to read was little more than a continuation of one which he had read before the Association at Birmingham in 1839. On that occasion he had given a statement showing the proportion of students in the University of Oxford who proceed to take degrees as well as the proportion who take honours. The table he had then read contained only the eight years ending in 1838, and he was now about to give a continuation of it up to last year, containing general results, which were much the same as those which had appeared from an examination of the former table.

In the years 1839, 1840, and 1841, it appeared that the average number of students who matriculated at Oxford was 413 per annum. Out of that number, 16, or 1 in 25, did not go up for examination. (See table 5.)

Of the remaining 397 students, who were entered for examination, 84 did not pass; some of them having withdrawn, whether from illness or other causes, or wishing merely to postpone their trials to another occasion, and the rest having been plucked.

Of the 313 who did pass the B. A. examination, 96 obtained classical honours, and 25 mathematical honours, and the number of mathematicians was 1 in 11, which is a very slight increase on the former period.

The sixth table contains the number of honour men at Oxford, from 1807 to 1819, with the number of double honours, in classics and mathematics, taken in each year, during that period; this table has been compiled from a larger one prepared by Professor Powell, which was published in Thomson's British Annual, for 1838 (p. 130).

The seventh table contains the number of students who passed the examination for the degree of B.A. at Oxford, from 1820 to 1841, specifying the number who obtained honours in the University examinations. In Oxford the majority of the students take the degree of bachelor of arts without honours; but the number of honour men, on the whole, appears to be increasing.

The names of the honour men at Oxford are arranged in each class alphabetically, and the number of first class men does not in any case exceed 19; whereas, at Cambridge, in the year 1839, there were 41 wranglers or first class men; and the number of honour men is usually much larger there than at Oxford.

At Oxford those who go up for examination, only wishing to pass, have the option of being examined either in logic, or in the four books of Euclid; and the proportion of those who choose each of these subjects is supposed to be about equal.

The public examination affords the only test of the extent to which science is cultivated, and the neglect of it is thus manifest. To follow it at all is purely optional; and the average of those who evince any degree of acquaintance with it, is about 1 in 11 or 12.

It would be highly desirable if data could be furnished with regard to expenditure. In the absence of such data it may be stated that at three colleges (Magdalen, Corpus, and New College) no member beyond those on the foundation are admitted, except as gentlemen commoners, and in this class *University* expenses are considerable. At some other colleges, all young men not intended for professions, are *obliged* to enter as gentlemen commoners; but this is on the avowed ground that as they form a society to themselves, those of less means are not so liable to be led into expense by their example.

Mr. Francis Newman, late fellow of Balliol College, Oxford, received the seventh table through the kindness of Mr. Wayte, fellow of Trinity College, Oxford. The column of totals was supplied by Mr. Newman from a table by Professor Powell, of Oxford.

Additional information respecting the resident members of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge will be found in the three last tables (VIII., IX., and X.), which have been recently sent to the editor of this Journal, by Mr. James Heywood. The colleges, in each University, which are most actively engaged in the education of youth, are distinguished in these tables by the large numbers of resident undergraduates under their superintendence, and the institutions of Christ Church and Exeter College at Oxford, with those of Trinity College and St. John's College at Cambridge, will be found eminent for the numbers of their academic youth.

Some of the colleges contain no undergraduates, except the limited number who are on the foundation, as, for instance, the rich foundations of King's College at Cambridge, and of All Soul's College at Oxford.

In the two tables of the Cambridge residents, (IX. and X.), a considerable decrease in the number will be observed between November and May; this is usual in every year, and is occasioned by the large number who graduate at Cambridge after the January examinations for the degree B.A., and who leave the University as soon as the ceremony of graduation is completed.

If the number of the resident members of the University of Oxford, in May, 1842, be compared with the similar numbers at Cambridge in May, 1841, it will be found that there were about 300 or 400 graduates and about 1,200 under-graduates resident in each University, at those periods.

1.—Number of the Degrees of Bachelor of Arts, at Oxford and Cambridge, from 1518 to 1658.

Years.	Oxford, B.A.	Cam- bridge, B.A.	Years.	Oxford, B.A.	Cam- bridge, B.A.	Years.	Oxford, B.A.	Cam- bridge, B.A.
1518-9	52	43	1566-7	80	86	1612-3	170	208
1519-20	Not regd.	41	1567-8	35	86	1613-4	169	231
1520-1	39	38	1568-9	94	118	1614-5	175	176
1521-2	42	31	1569-70	67	86	1615-6	115	244
1522-3	57	26	1570-1	114	114	1616-7	200	236
1523-4	37	40	1571-2	59	113	1617-8	206	198
1524-5	45	46	1572-3	90	185	1618-9	216	252
1525-6	52	40	1573-4	156	120	1619-20	230	226
1526-7	45	40	1574-5	94	146	1620-1	259	271
1527-8	40	42	1575-6	111	130	1621-2	266	262
1528-9	50	32	1576-7	97	174	1622-3	251	279
1529-30	43	26	1577-8	107	162	1623-4	207	282
1530-1	37	40	1578-9	115	115	1624-5	258	308
1531-2	50	37	1579-80	101	153	1625-6 { Not re- gistered. }	239	278
1532-3	46	28	1580-1	59	205			
1533-4	46	43	1581-2	120	194	1626-7	226	269
1534-5	42	43	1582-3	121	213	1627-8	230	315
1535-6	32	33	1583-4	157	277	1628-9	212	234
1536-7	33	30	1584-5	90	236	1629-30	193	291
1537-8	35	18	1585-6	119	192	1630-1	217	282
1538-9	42	42	1586-7	149	198	1631-2	194	272
1539-40	33	35	1587-8	104	180	1632-3	219	265
1540-1	46	42	1588-9	78	129	1633-4	186	225
1541-2	42	30	1589-90	125	182	1634-5	202	276
1542-3	22	49	1590-1	115	154	1635-6	208	247
1543-4	29	33	1591-2	104	Not inserted.	1636-7	202	260
1544-5	31	29	1592-3	98		1637-8	197	259
1545-6	26	29	1593-4	99	Not inserted.	1638-9	190	212
1546-7	36	16	1594-5	175		1639-40	162	240
1547-8	29	35	1595-6	103	177	1640-1	212	190
1548-9	Not registered.	29	1596-7	117	104	1641-2	106	Not inserted.
1549-50		32	1597-8	134	157	1642-3	79	
1550-1	30	36	1598-9	91	210	1643-4	39	143
1551-2	26	37	1599-600	113	175	1644-5	31	
1552-3	44	42	1600-1	103	167	1645-6	63	130
1553-4	39	48	1601-2	154	102	1646-7	52	171
1554-5	35	42	1602-3	136	182	1647-8	51	217
1555-6	39	37	1603-4	114	156	1648-9	83	221
1556-7	42	27	1604-5	161	140	1649-50	82	183
1557-8	55	41	1605-6	185	184	1650-1	106	167
1558-9	45	28	1606-7	171	176	1651-2	118	155
1559-60	37	60	1607-8	161	207	1652-3	132	183
1560-1	31	53	1608-9	188	152	1653-4	111	165
1561-2	70	51	1609-10	153	161	1654-5	112	149
1562-3	29	80	1610-1	168	216	1655-6	144	193
1563-4	55	71	1611-2	191	191	1656-7	129*	190
1564-5	36	85			204	1657-8		
1565-6						1658-9		

* The Oxford Table is afterwards continued for the following years:—

1659-60 . 158	1661-2 . 135	1663-4 . 138
1660-1 . 99	1662-3 . 127	1664-5 . 136

II.—Degrees at Cambridge from 1810 to 1840 inclusive; and Number of B.A. Degrees at Oxford, during the same period.

Degrees at Cambridge from 1810 to 1840 inclusive.															Degrees of B.A. at Oxford.	
Years.	Nob. et tam. Nob.	Degrees by Royal Mandate.	D.D.	L.L.D.	Licensed Practitioners.	M.D.	B.D.	Ten Years' Men. B.D. Stat. et.	L.L.B.	M.B.	M.A.	B.A. &c. Incor.	Mus. D.	Mus. B.	D.A.	
1810	10	2 D. D.	4	3	1	4	12	2	85	6	122	152
1811	35	{ 2 D. D. 1 B. D. }	3	2	3	2	5	3	102	3	129	153
1812	15	1 D. D.	1	..	2	..	5	1	16	1	92	4	154	153
1813	3	1 M. A.	3	1	3	2	5	3	10	5	82	3	142	182
1814	11	2 D. D.	3	2	2	..	4	3	9	2	105	165	180
1815	9	3 D. D.	6	1	1	..	4	1	2	3	93	2	159	169
1816	15	2 L.L. D.	4	2	2	2	9	2	16	4	99	2	169	163
1817	10	..	1	1	2	2	6	2	14	3	128	1	189	181
1818	10	..	3	2	..	3	6	1	8	2	120	4	219	225
1819	23	1 M. A.	2	1	2	2	6	3	18	1	135	3	179	218
1820	10	1 D. D.	4	1	..	3	2	..	12	6	119	5	183	225
1821	13	1 D. D.	4	2	5	1	18	..	140	1	212	271
1822	7	{ 2 D. D. 1 M. A. }	4	..	3	2	3	6	11	6	138	2	284	279
1823	8	1 M. D.	5	2	..	1	5	5	9	1	128	2	292	280
1824	11	..	4	3	2	..	11	3	16	16	157	1	299	295
1825	5	5	8	1	3	5	3	5	16	..	198	7	1	..	335	258
1826	9	..	4	3	1	3	9	9	14	7	163	2	283	284
1827	4	..	2	..	3	3	9	8	13	14	204	3	222	314
1828	4	1	4	..	3	..	6	7	12	2	238	2	..	1	335	259
1829	6	2	6	..	6	4	4	9	21	9	180	1	313	303
1830	5	2	2	..	2	7	6	8	16	5	190	1	324	273
1831	11	1	7	1	4	5	9	4	9	18	194	327	279
1832	6	..	2	..	3	3	3	7	12	..	180	318	275
1833	17	..	2	1	3	3	8	7	13	9	201	1	302	291
1834	8	..	3	1	3	3	4	14	9	8	185	305	292
1835	36	4	1	3	8	4	4	5	7	8	214	2	314	292
1836	7	3	5	..	11	6	11	5	15	4	194	2	..	1	295	276
1837	7	2	3	..	2	4	6	4	5	4	180	1	303	261
1838	8	2	3	..	4	2	9	3	6	2	181	1	315	274
1839	6	3	14	2	1	6	5	4	7	5	205	1	338	245
1840	8	5	5	1	1	3	1	2	8	3	213	339	323

III.—*Matriculations at Cambridge, from 1810 to 1839 inclusive.*

Year beginning.	Noblemen.	Fellow-Commoners.	Pensioners.	Sizars.	Total.
October, 1810. .	3	48	124	38	213
„ 1811. .	16	60	168	21	265
„ 1812. .	2	31	170	39	242
„ 1813. .	4	55	173	21	253
„ 1814. .	2	53	215	26	296
„ 1815. .	4	44	212	35	295
„ 1816. .	2	36	227	33	298
„ 1817. .	2	44	257	27	330
„ 1818. .	9	55	302	61	427
„ 1819. .	1	54	316	56	427
„ 1820. .	5	52	306	50	413
„ 1821. .	4	54	319	50	427
„ 1822. .	..	43	303	51	397
„ 1823. .	1	55	352	54	462
Ending July, 1824.					
Year beginning					
10th Oct. 1824. .	2	34	354	57	447
„ 1825. .	3	42	388	45	478
„ 1826. .	2	37	342	45	426
„ 1827. .	4	41	365	47	457
„ 1828. .	5	41	359	56	461
„ 1829. .	3	39	330	53	425
„ 1830. .	1	30	377	45	453
„ 1831. .	1	32	334	40	407
„ 1832. .	6	42	354	38	440
„ 1833. .	1	38	324	39	402
„ 1834. .	8	34	360	45	447
„ 1835. .	1	25	354	38	418
„ 1836. .	1	32	349	48	430
„ 1837. .	6	35	356	38	435
„ 1838. .	1	30	336	42	409
„ 1839. .	..	28	388	43	459

IV.—*Comparative Table of the Number of Students admitted, and of the Number of Graduates who received Testimonials for Deacons' Orders, in Trinity College, Cambridge, during Ten Years, from 83 to 840.*

Years.	Admissions of Students.				Testimonials for Deacons' Orders, given by the Tutors.
	Pensioners.	Sizars.	Ten-Year Men.	Total.	
1831	151	8	..	159	41
1832	142	7	..	149	52
1833	134	10	1	145	47
1834	142	14	..	156	30
1835	136	8	1	145	38
1836	155	10	2	167	47
1837	117	6	2	125	38
1838	145	9	..	154	37
1839	116	8	..	124	40
1840	110	11	..	121	43
Total in 10 Years .}	1,348	91	6	1,445	413

V.—Contributions to Academical Statistics. (Continued from 1839, by Professor Powell.)

Years.	Matriculated.	Examined.	Classical Honors.	Mathematical Honors.	Total who Passed.	Honors in both kinds.	Took B.A. Degree.	Took M.A.	Divin. Degree.	Medical Degree.	Civil Law—(Ordinary.)	Civil Law—(Honorary.)
1837	421	..	124	24	261	18
1838	393	..	105	24	274	10
1839	404	374	86	26	245	12	254	176	16	4	7	16
1840	396	419	97	22	323	6	288	177	13	5	11	1
1841	441	399	105	27	372	14	286	179	27	2	13	9

VI.—Honors obtained at Oxford, from 1807 to 1819. (By Professor Powell.)

Years.	Classical Honors.	Mathematical Honors.	Total who Passed.	Honors in both kinds.	Years.	Classical Honors.	Mathematical Honors.	Total who Passed.	Honors in both kinds.
1807	10	6	22	6	1814	72	14	180	10
1808	55	12	163	11	1815	56	9	169	7
1809	6	14	144	10	1816	63	15	163	11
1810	77	11	152	9	1817	69	12	181	7
1811	74	15	153	12	1818	58	20	225	15
1812	51	9	153	6	1819	69	11	218	7
1813	71	14	182	10					

VII.—Number of Students who passed the Examination for the Degree of B.A. at Oxford, from 1820 to 1841.

Years.	Classics.		Mathematics.		Other Honors.	Without Honors.	Total.*	Double Firsts.	Honors in both Kinds.
	1st Class.	2nd Class.	1st Class.	2nd Class.					
1820	10	25	5	6	23	160	225	1	4
1821	8	29	7	6	38	191	271	2	8
1822	19	37	10	8	43	171	279	4	9
1823	15	29	8	4	42	189	280	2	7
1824	9	32	4	3	37	215	295	2	5
1825	11	24	5	7	30	187	258	1	6
1826	9	21	11	2	35	213	284	3	7
1827	11	27	11	8	25	244	314	..	12
1828	8	26	5	8	36	185	259	3	9
1829	10	21	8	6	37	233	303	2	12
1830	11	17	6	7	28	210	273	1	6
*1831	12	30	11	4	67	165	279	4	12
1832	13	20	10	5	67	168	275	2	8
1833	19	28	6	6	90	147	291	2	7
1834	15	23	8	3	80	168	292	..	5
1835	12	28	7	4	72	175	292	3	6
1836	11	27	8	7	87	146	276	5	10
1837	19	27	5	9	81	131	261	1	11
1838	10	20	4	7	85	155	274	1	7
1839	11	21	2	7	66	149	245	1	11
1840	11	23	4	5	71	210	323	..	1
1841	9	31	6	3	82	154	272	1	13

* After the year 1830 the fourth class was added.

IX.—*Resident Members of the University of Cambridge in November, 1840, with the Number Matriculated in that Month.*

	Matriculations in November, 1840.	Resident Members.		
		In College.	In Lodgings.	Total.
Trinity. . . .	113	219	229	448
St. John's . . .	86	239	103	342
Corpus Christi . .	27	78	35	113
Queen's	21	48	63	111
Caius	25	56	40	96
Catharine Hall . .	22	35	48	83
St. Peter's. . . .	16	58	17	75
Emmanuel.	11	68	5	73
Christ	14	66	6	72
Pembroke	10	44	16	60
Jesus	8	55	5	60
Clare Hall. . . .	14	54	5	59
Magdalen	11	50	..	50
King's	2	34	..	34
Sidney	6	33	1	34
Trinity Hall . . .	3	30	3	33
Downing	1	11	..	11
Total	390	1,178	576	1,754

X.—*Resident Members of the University of Cambridge in May, 1841.*

	Trinity College	St. John's.	Corpus.	Queen's.	Caius.	Catharine Hall.	St. Peter's.	Emmanuel.	Christ's.	Pembroke.	Jesus.	Clare Hall.	Magdalen.	King's.	Sidney.	Trinity Hall.	Downing.	Total.
GRADUATES.																		
Heads of Houses . .	1	1	1	..	1	..	1	1	1	..	1	1	..	1	..	11
Vice-Masters, &c. . .	1	1	2
Fellows { M.A. & above	19	19	7	10	10	5	7	6	8	6	4	4	3	14	5	2	3	132
{ B.A.	7	11	1	..	3	22
M.A. and above, not on the Foundation . . .	2	1	..	1	1	1	5	1	..	2	..	15
Graduates lower than M.A. (including scholars)	33	14	3	3	9	2	4	6	..	5	7	1	2	..	1	1	1	92
Total	63	47	11	14	20	7	13	13	9	12	12	6	9	19	8	3	7	274
UNDERGRADUATES.																		
Scholars	27	28	10	..	10	75
Sizar, &c.	17	51	2	3	3	..	3	79
Noblemen	1	1
Fellow Commoners . .	10	2	2	6	2	8	3	2	..	1	..	1	4	..	41
Pensioners	240	154	83	78	54	55	47	49	47	33	35	36	34	..	23	9	10	987
Ten-year Men	1	1	1
Those who are keep- ing additional terms for B.A. degree	7	2	2	11
Total	295	242	85	84	56	66	53	49	49	38	37	36	38	10	24	23	10	1,195
Complete Total . . .	358	289	96	98	76	73	66	62	58	50	49	42	47	29	32	26	17	1,469

Statistical Illustrations of the Past and Present state of Lancashire, and more particularly of the hundred of Salford. By HENRY ASHWORTH, Esq., of Turton, near Bolton.

[Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association, at Manchester, 27th June, 1842.]

HISTORY informs, that after the battle of Hastings, now nearly 800 years ago, William the Conqueror proceeded northwards to extirpate the last relic of Saxon independence. With ruthless barbarity he laid waste the whole tract of country lying between York and Durham, and in the depth of winter prepared to lead his army to his fortress at Chester. Passing the bordering hills of Yorkshire, his way was over the southern division of Lancashire, which he found a mere waste, uncultivated, without roads, and almost uninhabited; so that by reason of destructive marshes, impenetrable woods, perilous rivers, and overflowing valleys, his soldiers were grievously harassed; some of them murmured aloud at the hardships to which their chief was exposing them, and threatened to return to the Continent. The king was obliged to cheer his men by advancing before them on foot, and often had to assist with his own hands to extricate them from their dangers.

Passing from this period to the reign of Elizabeth, the records of this comparatively recent age throw but faint light upon those incidents which illustrate the condition of this portion of the country, or the aspect of the people. In 1607 we have Camden's Survey.

After having visited the towns of Hull, Beverley, and other places on the eastern coast, he speaks with a sort of apprehension of his prospect of entering Lancashire,—describing it as that part of the kingdom lying “beyond the mountains towards the western ocean,” and regarding it not only as a foreign, but as hardly a civilized country.

“And first,” he says, “of the people of Lancashire, whom I approach with a kind of dread; may it forbode no ill. . . . However, that I may not seem wanting to this county, I will run the hazard of the attempt; hoping that the divine assistance which hath favoured me in the rest, will not fail me in this.”

Proceeding accordingly to his survey, he describes Rochdale as “a market town of no small resort;” Bury as another, “no way inferior to it; and Manchester, as “surpassing all the towns hereabouts in building, populousness, woollen-manufacture, market-place, and church.” Liverpool is merely noticed under the name of “Litherpoole”—commonly shortened into “Lirpool,” as “the most convenient and usual place for setting sail into Ireland.” Preston is called “a large town, handsome and populous for these parts;” Blackburn is merely mentioned; but Ashton, Bolton, Oldham, Salford, and many other places, now containing each from 10 to upwards of 50,000 inhabitants, are not even noticed, existing as they did, if at all, merely as obscure and insignificant villages.

It has been supposed that the inhabitants of the southern and eastern parts of the county are principally descended from the Frisians, a section of the Saxons of North Germany; and they have been described as men of orderly, but of resolute and even rude habits, generally cautious and possessed of extraordinary energy. These parts of the county were for many centuries, from the difficulty of their access, but little frequented by the inhabitants of other districts. Hence the *Lancastrians* have be-

come but little influenced by intermarriages, and but slightly affected in their manners by the changes which in other places have resulted from the Norman conquest.

They retain, as they have always done, much of that sturdiness of temper which belonged to their Saxon ancestors, and which is often taken as an indication of rudeness, whilst in reality it is only an awkward manner of conveying to others the high sense they entertain of their own independence.

In 1524, Hugh Oldham, Bishop of Exeter, and founder of the Free Grammar School of Manchester, described the children of Lancashire as possessed of "*pregnant wits*," but as having been brought up "*rudely and idly*;" in this case it will be obvious, that the term "*idly*" was used to imply *loosely*. In more recent times, the Lancastrians have been spoken of as distinguished for the quiet dignity of their minds, roused only by "great objects"—above "petty bustle"—having a "contempt for shew"—an "abhorrence of intrigue;" and their deportment characterised by "plainness and downrightness," accompanied with unostentatious good-nature. The possession of these qualities has no doubt contributed to render the Lancastrians of more modern days remarkable for a spirit of enterprise, and an energy of application perhaps unparalleled. The introduction of the cotton manufacture about 70 years ago, afforded them an ample field for the developement and successful application of those powers and qualities of mind, which they appear to have inherited from their Saxon ancestors.

In this otherwise unpromising locality, manufactures and commerce have found a genial soil. In the hands of this race of people, the sciences of mechanics and chemistry have been applied to manufacturing industry, with a practical intelligence previously unknown. Steam-power has been introduced, and successfully applied to all the varied forms of mechanical invention. Those rivers, remembered for the obstructions they *once* presented to military aggression, are *now* directed to the propelling of machinery; they are lending their aid in the bleaching, dyeing, and printing of our fabrics, and assist in many other manufacturing and mercantile services. They are crossed with bridges almost out of number, bearing roads and railroads through that country of "destructive morasses and impenetrable woods" which nearly thwarted regal enterprise.

Liverpool, two centuries ago a small fishing station, and "the most convenient and usual place for setting sail into Ireland," has become a mercantile port, unequalled in any other country. All the towns previously existing have been greatly increased in magnitude and wealth, and other towns have come into existence, rivalling those of more ancient date. Many populous villages have also arisen, and the whole country has become thronged with myriads of industrious people,—more numerous indeed than the population of any other English county.

In drawing attention to the past and present state of Lancashire, it will be difficult, or perhaps impossible, to describe all the changes which have been effected. Those points of comparison will appear the most striking, which have reference to the increased *population and wealth* of the county. These are presented in the following parallel columns. The population returns are those of 1801, the earliest we possess, compared with those of 1841. The comparisons relating to the value of

property are drawn from the Parliamentary Return of the assessment for the land-tax, in 1692, and the county assessment of 1841.

The land-tax returns have been selected, as the only authenticated records of the value of property in the county, having an earlier date than 1815; and they may be taken as a fair approximation to the value of property at that period, from having been ascertained for the adoption of a mode of taxing by rate, instead of scutages. The sums which represent the gross annual value of places in 1692 have been ascertained by adding together the sums of land-tax, *redeemed* and *unredeemed*, charged severally upon each of them; and as this tax was a charge of *four shillings* in the pound, its amount being *multiplied by five*, gives the full annual value at that period.

The following may be adduced as an instance of the mode in which the calculations have been worked out. *Example* :—

	Land tax redeemed.			Land tax un-redeemed.			Total.		Full Ann. Val. 1692.	Full Ann. Val. 1841.	Per Cent. Increase.
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£. s. d.		£.	£.	
Great Bolton .	18	9	3	15	6	9	= 33 16 0	$\times 5 =$	169	93,916	54,358

By way of enlarged illustration, the following will show the past and present state of the several hundreds or divisions of the county.

COUNTY OF LANCASTER.

Hundreds.	Population in 1801.	Population in 1841.	Annual Value in 1692.	Annual Value in 1841.	Rate of Increase Per Cent. on Value.
	No.	No.	£.	£.	
Lonsdale . .	42,842	61,507	8,500	301,987	3,500
Amounderness .	39,618	93,033	10,288	364,454	3,500
Leyland . .	30,461	79,816	5,774	199,868	3,500
Blackburn . .	88,503	193,832	11,131	497,541	4,400
Salford . .	281,413	764,654	25,907	2,703,292	10,400
West Derby .	189,728	474,212	35,642	2,124,925	5,900
Total . . .	672,565	1,667,054	97,242	6,192,067	6,300

The borough of Lancaster has increased in the number of its inhabitants, since the commencement of the present century, from 9,030 to 13,531; that of Wigan, from 10,989 to 25,517; the town of Manchester, with Salford, from 84,020 to 296,183; and that of Liverpool, with Toxteth Park, from 79,722 to 264,298.

From the above it appears, that, in the course of 150 years the property of the county, as a whole, has been advanced 6,300 per cent. That the three hundreds which are chiefly agricultural have been advanced 3,500 per cent., whilst those which are more engaged in manufactures and commerce have averaged an advance of 7,000 per cent., or twice as much.

The following table shows the population in 1801 and 1841, of the several towns and townships comprised in the hundred of Salford; also the annual value of the same places at the period of assessment for the land-tax in 1692, contrasted with their value as ascertained for the county assessment in 1841, so as to show the per centage of increase in each of them.

HUNDRED OF SALFORD.

Places.	Population.		Property.			
	In 1801.	In 1841.	Annual Value in 1692.		Annual Value in 1841.	Rate of Increase per Cent.
	No.	No.	£.	s. d.	£.	
Ardwick	1,762	9,906	175	0 0	46,471	26,500
Blakely	2,361	3,202	364	19 7	7,673	2,100
Bradford	94	910	52	15 0	3,122	5,800
Broughton	866	3,793	230	6 8	33,956	14,700
Burnage	383	489	80	15 5	2,413	3,000
Cheetham	750	6,080	215	18 4	38,983	18,600
Chorlton-with-Hardy .	513	632	236	15 0	4,579	1,900
Chorlton-on-Medlock .	675	28,322	256	4 2	137,651	53,000
Crumpsall	452	2,745	95	6 3	13,237	13,000
Didsbury	619	1,248	245	9 2	9,662	3,900
Failssworth	2,622	3,874	200	0 0	8,514	4,250
Gorton	1,127	2,422	435	11 3	9,340	2,000
Harpurhey	118	438	32	5 10	1,770	5,610
Heaton Norris . . .	3,768	14,626	281	15 0	45,175	16,000
Hulme	1,677	26,819	152	10 5	75,733	49,800
Levenshulme	628	1,231	154	0 0	6,056	3,900
Manchester	70,409	163,667	4,025	0 0	721,743	17,900
Moss Side	150	436	61	9 2	4,958	8,100
Moston	618	671	196	2 11	5,743	2,900
Newton	1,295	6,127	252	7 6	21,953	8,700
Openshaw	339	2,280	107	10 10	6,520	6,100
Reddish	456	1,187	343	0 0	6,503	1,900
Rusholme	726	1,868	146	13 4	15,281	10,400
Salford	13,611	51,522	809	19 7	162,807	20,100
Stretford	1,477	3,515	384	4 7	21,677	5,600
Withington	743	1,271	311	5 5	9,565	3,000
ECCLES PARISH:						
Barton-on-Irwell . .	6,197	10,855	827	7 11	48,863	5,900
Clifton	812	1,370	190	5 0	6,462	3,400
Pendlebury	437	2,196	175	0 0	11,008	6,200
Pendleton	3,611	10,905	363	12 11	48,150	13,300
Worsley	5,062	8,340	651	9 2	19,938	3,000
FLIXTON PARISH:						
Flixton	1,093	1,459	290	12 11	5,412	1,800
Urmston	532	770	204	9 7	4,174	2,000
PRESTWICH-CUM-OLDHAM PARISH:						
Alkington	319	350	76	11 8	2,082	2,700
Great Heaton . . .	267	157	82	16 8	2,879	3,500
Little Heaton . . .	494	808	59	12 6	1,994	3,400
Pilkington	5,786	11,126	651	6 8	32,675	5,000
Prestwich	1,811	3,179	202	0 0	11,565	5,700
Tonge	711	2,423	45	4 7	4,605	10,300
BOLTON-LE-MOORS PARISH:						
Anglezarke	162	164	41	19 7	1,114	2,700
Blackrod	1,623	2,613	184	15 5	7,377	4,000
Great Bolton . . .	12,549	33,609	169	0 0	93,916	54,388
Little Bolton . . .	4,867	16,144	132	19 7	47,111	35,690
Bradshaw	380	827	80	12 6	2,843	3,550
Breightmet	734	1,309	92	15 0	5,068	5,500
Edgeworth	1,003	1,697	31	4 2	4,116	13,200

HUNDRED OF SALFORD.—continued.

Places.	Population		Property.			
	In 1801.	In 1841.	Annual Value in 1692.		Annual Value in 1841.	Rate of Increase per Cent.
	No.	No.	£.	s. d.	£.	
BOLTON-LE-MOORS PARISH:						
Entwistle	447	555	62	9 7	1,977	3,100
Harwood	1,281	1,996	107	6 3	3,907	3,650
Darcy Lever	589	1,701	62	17 11	6,289	10,100
Little Lever	1,276	2,580	112	16 3	10,058	8,900
Longworth	249	149	55	2 11	1,038	1,800
Lostock	509	625	103	4 7	2,244	2,100
Quarleton	238	370	37	7 6	1,724	4,650
Rivington	519	471	111	12 11	2,336	2,100
Sharples	873	2,879	92	9 2	10,061	10,900
Tonge-with-Haulgh .	1,158	2,627	107	0 0	9,396	8,800
Turton	1,369	3,577	165	7 6	14,323	8,600
BURY PARISH:						
Bury	7,072	20,604	220	14 7	52,882	24,000
Elton	2,080	5,169	214	15 0	14,306	6,700
Heap and Heywood .	4,283	14,763	265	14 7	41,652	15,700
Tottington Higher End	1,246	9,882	234	17 1	10,613	4,500
Tottington Lower End	4,314		377	7 1	18,382	4,800
Walmersley and Shuttleworth }	2,166	4,911	316	17 6	11,271	3,500
DEAN PARISH:						
Farnworth	1,439	4,829	141	10 0	17,971	12,700
Halliwell	1,385	3,242	120	12 11	13,230	10,025
Heaton	677	713	120	13 4	2,790	2,350
Horwich	1,565	3,774	120	12 11	12,986	10,800
Little Hulton	1,498	3,052	101	2 11	10,017	9,900
Middle Hulton	819	902	130	15 5	4,370	3,300
Over Hulton	619	445	120	10 5	4,669	3,800
Kearsley	1,082	3,435	56	4 7	9,035	16,100
Rumworth	700	1,298	85	0 0	3,789	4,400
Westhoughton	3,059	4,527	346	11 3	10,978	3,100
MIDDLETON PARISH:						
Ainsworth	1,240	1,608	114	10 0	5,093	4,800
Great Leave	398	657	76	5 0	5,273	6,900
Ratcliffe	2,497	5,058	208	14 2	18,752	9,000
Ashworth	295	325	87	5 0	1,428	1,600
Birle-cum-Bamford .	753	1,722	105	5 0	5,278	5,000
Hopwood	948	1,518	153	0 0	7,300	4,700
Middleton	3,265	7,731	196	19 7	16,197	8,200
Pilsworth	418	414	121	14 7	3,693	3,000
Thornham	674	1,442	162	14 7	5,733	3,500
WIGAN PARISH:						
Aspull	1,253	2,772	110	1 3	9,044	8,200
PRESTWICH-CUM-OLDHAM PARISH:						
Chadderton	3,452	5,405	276	14 2	13,716	4,900
Crompton	3,482	6,722	293	3 4	15,300	5,200
Oldham	12,024	42,593	287	9 7	107,500	37,400
Royton	2,719	5,728	91	14 7	16,200	17,800

HUNDRED OF SALFORD—continued..

Places.	Population.		Property.		
	In 1801.	In 1841.	Annual Value in 1692.	Annual Value in 1841.	Rate of Increase per Cent.
	No.	No.	£. s. d.	£.	
ROCHDALE PARISH :					
Blatchinworth and Halderbrook	1,647	4,466	229 8 2	12,069	5,200
Butterworth	3,930	5,088	674 15 10	20,112	2,900
Castleton	5,460	14,270	526 10 0	48,466	9,200
Spotland	9,031	18,469	524 9 7	58,796	11,200
Todmorden and Walsden	2,515	7,297	251 17 6	17,738	7,000
Wardleworth	3,298	11,400	300 3 9	39,456	13,100
Wuerdale and Wardle	3,220	6,870	359 14 7	17,645	4,900
ASHTON-UNDER-LYNE PARISH :					
Ashton-under-Lyne	19,052	46,343	1,345 6 0	143,803	10,600
MANCHESTER PARISH :					
Denton	1,362	3,349	378 0 0	7,890	2,000
Droylvesden	1,552	4,930	329 17 1	12,900	3,900
Haughton	1,139	3,319	190 5 0	7,610	4,000
Beswick (extra-parochial)	6	345	26 0 0	1,474	5,600

These statements show, that throughout the county, and more especially within the hundred of Salford, there has been a remarkable extent of prosperous increase; and it will be observed, that some of the places have proceeded with far greater rapidity than others, out of which the following may be adduced amongst those wherein the advanced value, has exceeded 10,000 per cent.

Places.	Annual Value in 1692.	Annual Value in 1841.	Rate of Increase per Cent.
Places surrounding Manchester :	£. s. d.	£.	
Chorlton-upon-Medlock	256 4 2	137,651	53,000
Hulme	152 10 5	75,733	49,800
Ardwick	175 0 0	46,471	26,500
Salford	809 19 7	162,847	20,100
Cheetham	215 18 4	38,983	18,100
Manchester	4,025 0 0	721,743	17,900
Heaton Norris	281 15 0	45,175	16,000
Broughton	230 6 8	33,956	14,700
Pendleton	363 12 11	48,150	13,200
Crumpsall	95 6 3	13,237	13,000
Rusholme	146 13 4	15,281	10,400
Places in other Parts of Salford Hundred :			
Great Bolton	169 0 0	93,916	54,388
Little Bolton	132 19 7	47,111	35,690
Bury	220 14 7	52,882	24,000
Oldham	287 9 7	107,500	37,400

Places.	Annual Value in 1692.	Annual Value in 1841.	Rate of Increase per Cent.
Places in other Parts of Salford Hundred— <i>continued</i> :	£. s. d.	£.	
Royton	91 14 7	16,200	17,800
Heap and Heywood	265 14 7	41,652	15,700
Kearsley	56 4 7	9,035	16,100
Farnworth	141 10 0	17,071	12,700
Edgeworth	31 4 2	4,116	13,200
Wardleworth	300 3 9	39,456	13,100
Spotland	524 9 7	58,796	11,200
Ashton-under-Lyne	1,345 0 0	143,803	10,600

The following are nearly an equal number of other places, some of which lie contiguous to the foregoing, and in which the progress has been much more slow, not exceeding 3,000 per cent.

Places.	Annual Value in 1692.	Annual Value in 1841.	Rate of Increase per Cent.
Places surrounding Manchester:	£. s. d.	£.	
Chorlton-cum-Hardy	236 15 0	4,579	1,900
Blakeley	364 19 7	7,673	2,100
Gorton	435 11 3	9,340	2,100
Moston	196 2 11	6,743	2,900
Burnage	80 15 5	2,413	3,000
Withington	311 5 5	9,565	3,000
Reddish	343 0 0	6,503	1,900
Flixton	290 12 11	5,412	1,800
Urmston	204 9 7	4,174	2,000
Alkrington	76 11 8	2,082	2,700
Denton	378 0 0	7,890	2,000
Places in other Parts of Salford Hundred:			
Butterworth	674 15 10	20,112	2,900
Ashworth	87 5 0	1,428	1,600
Longworth	55 2 11	1,038	1,800
Rivington	111 12 11	2,336	2,100
Anglezarke	41 19 7	1,114	2,700
Heaton	120 13 4	2,790	2,350
Lostock	103 4 7	2,244	2,100

Some explanation appears necessary to account for the occurrence of these marked disparities in the progressive prosperity of places bordering so closely upon each other, and possessing nearly the same natural advantages. The only solution which can be given is, that in those places where the genius, enterprise, and industry of the people have been developed, and have had to encounter no sort of local hindrances, the prosperity of the district has proceeded with a steady onward course; whilst in those other places, which have not progressed with equal rapidity, there must have been an absence of native enterprise; a want of mines, roads, or canals; or a disinclination somewhere, perhaps on the part of the owners, to allow the natural advantages of the country to be turned to the best account.

It has followed, nevertheless, that advantages have accrued to those localities where manufacturing industry has met with little or no en-

couragement, but such advantages have chiefly been derived to the land, from the improved market for the productions of the soil, furnished by an adjacent population. In this way manufacturing industry has not only raised the prosperity of the places in which it was developed, but has extended its benefits to all the farming localities of the neighbourhood; raising the rental of *mere* LAND, in some cases 1,500, and in others as much as 3,000 per cent.

One, amongst the many instances of extraordinary increase in the value of property, has occurred in Chorlton-upon-Medlock, adjacent to Manchester. The Chorlton Hall estate, extending over most of the township, was sold in the year 1590, as Dr. Aikin relates, by Edmund Trafford, Esq., to Ralph Sorocold, for the sum of 320*l*. In 1644 it was sold to Thomas Minshull, apothecary, for 300*l*. The same estate was sold in the year 1794, or 20 years after the introduction of the cotton manufacture, to Messrs. Cooper, Marslands, and Duckworth, for 42,914*l*.

	£.
In 1815 the annual value of that township was . . .	19,484
In 1829 it was	66,645
In 1841 „	137,651

Its annual value at the period of the land-tax was 256*l*. 4*s*. 2*d*., and last year, by the county assessment, it was, as before stated, 137,651*l*; the advance being upwards of 53,000 per cent. Taking the county assessment, and computing the property to be worth 25 years' purchase, its value in less than two centuries, will have been increased from 300*l*. to upwards of 3,000,000*l*.

The case of Westhoughton, near Bolton, presents a feature somewhat remarkable in the history of the cotton manufacture. In the year 1812, the first, or one of the first, power-loom factories ever established, was erected in that township. The outrages of the Luddites, of Nottinghamshire and Yorkshire, occurring at that period, rendered it an unpropitious time for the introduction of machinery. Outrage was begun in the neighbourhood, and ended in the destruction of the mill by incendiary violence. The consequences of this rash act were not such as infatuated ignorance had led the people to anticipate; namely, the obliteration of the invention of the power-loom. On the contrary, it merely took its flight from persecution, and located itself in the heretofore almost desolate neighbourhood of Staly Bridge, upon the confines of four counties, a place almost out of observation before the introduction of the cotton manufacture. Here it has been allowed to remain in quietude, diffusing prosperity on every hand.

The records of the population, and the value of the property in that neighbourhood are not very easily accessible, because the places are attached to different counties. Some idea, however, of the general prosperity of the district may be derived from the following accounts published in Edwin Butterworth's "Statistics of Lancashire." In 1814 there were in Staly Bridge 12 cotton manufacturing establishments, chiefly upon a small scale; and in 1841 there were 32 establishments, mostly upon a large scale, employing from 9,000 to 10,000 work-people, and having at work 536,000 spindles and 5,000 power-looms.

The accounts which relate to one of the parishes, that of Ashton-under-Lyne, the only one comprised within that district to whose

accounts we have access, show that the annual value of Ashton parish has advanced, since 1815, from 33,548*l.* to 143,803*l.*

We may now return, perhaps instructively, to the case of Westhoughton, and inquire how it has fared with that township, since the expulsion of the power-loom. The people have adhered principally to their former employment of hand-loom weaving, a branch of trade which has every year continued to decline. The population in 1811 was 3,810; in 1821, 4,211; in 1831, 4,500; and in 1841, 4,527. The value of the township for the county assessment in 1815 was 7,377*l.*; in 1829, 9,564*l.*; and in 1841, 10,978*l.* The locality of Westhoughton possesses an excellent coal-field, and an industrious population; and this slow progress, if progress it can be called, must therefore be attributed to the departure of manufacturing enterprise. The coal-field has recently, however, been more extensively opened, so as to add to the value of the rateable property, and increase the range of employment for the people. It may, however, be deserving of remark, how much more rapidly the prosperity of the neighbourhood would have advanced had manufactures been promoted, affording employment to the people, and consuming their coals on the spot, rather than having them raised, as they now are, to be consumed in distant places, or sent abroad. Manufacturing enterprise has not again been attracted thither; the destitution of the people has continued gradually to augment; and at the present time that place is the poorest of the 25 townships composing the Bolton Union; nearly one-fourth of its population are paupers;* and the reduced state of the farmers may be estimated from the fact, that very many of them cannot pay their rents in full, that some of them pay instalments as low as 5*s.* at once, in liquidation of their poor rates, and that others have had their cattle sold to meet the demands of the collector.

Authenticated details of the material progress of particular districts, are not easily found. It will, therefore, be interesting to adduce the following particulars, relating to the Forest or Ancient Chase of Rosendale, containing an area of 24 square miles, as a remarkable instance of progressive improvement. In the early part of the 16th century, the inhabitants consisted of 80 souls, residing in booths. It is stated in a petition of the inhabitants to Henry VII. and VIII., that 44 years before, the forest was replenished only or chiefly with foresters, or keepers of the deer; and that if the deer were entirely taken away, the forest was likely to come to some good purpose, and that the commonwealth might be increased thereby.

The forest having been disforested, the lands became apportioned, demised, and let for terms of years, or by copy of court roll. The petitioners proceed to state, so that "Whereas before that time, there was nothing else but deer, and other savage and wild beasts, there is since, by industry of the inhabitants, grown to be very fertile ground, well replenished with people." And further, that "the Castle church of Clitheroe (being their parish church) is distant 12 miles from the said forest, and the wais very foul, painful, hillous, and perilous, and the country in the winter season so extremely and vehemently cold that infants borne to the church to be christened are in great peril of their lives; and that the aged and impotent people, and the women also, are

* The population is 4,527; and the paupers are 995; 49 in-doors; and 946 out.

not able to travel so far to hear the word of God; and that the dead corpses are at such times like to lie there and remain unburied for lack of carriage, till great annoyance doth grow thereby."

The premises being considered, the inhabitants were allowed to erect Goodshaw Chapel, at their own cost, as a chapel of ease. The forest lands were apportioned into 19 booths, or vaccaries, and the annual value, or "advanced rent," settled upon them by Royal or Parliamentary Commission, and confirmed by James I., amounted to 122*l.* 13*s.* 8*d.*

Upon the introduction of the woollen manufacture into the north of England, the foresters of Rossendale did not long continue to expend the whole of their energies upon the cultivation of a sterile soil; they entered with avidity into this branch of industry, and have pursued it for a very long period, with a remarkable degree of success.

About 45 years ago, the cotton manufacture was first introduced, and now promises, in its extent, to surpass the woollen trade; so that the forest is now possessed of both these sources of employment upon a very large scale.

The people have multiplied from the number of 80 souls, to upwards of 21,000. They have usually enjoyed an abundance of regular and well-paid employment; the scale of their comforts has gradually improved, and the numbers of their schools and places of worship may be taken as evidence that their intelligence, their religious, moral, and social standing have steadily advanced. The manufacturers and merchants of Rossendale have ever been distinguished for enterprise and ability, and their intercourse may be said to have extended to every mercantile country in the world.

On every hand the sides of the hills are adorned with the commodious and substantial dwellings of the master manufacturers, manifesting wealth and comfort. An amazing increase has taken place in the value of property. Land used exclusively for farming purposes, commands upwards of ten times the rental of a century ago; and farms formerly tenanted by persons now living, are let by their present possessors for seven or eight times the sums which themselves once paid. In the populous parts, building land is rented at 6*d.* and 6½*d.* per square yard, being 12*l.* to 13*l.* per acre; or a larger sum than was paid for the whole forest of 15,300 acres in the reign of James I.

By the last year's survey for the county assessment, the annual rental of the forest is 50,035*l.*, or an increase of 41,000 per cent. upon the Parliamentary survey before alluded to; bearing out the prediction of the petitioners, that the "removal of the deer would come to good purpose, and the commonwealth be increased thereby."

Next to the hundred of Salford, in wealth and importance, we find that the hundred of West Derby, in which Liverpool is situated, has derived the largest amount of advantage from the introduction of manufactures, although itself but slightly engaged in them. At the time of the land-tax assessment, it was put down at 35,642*l.* At the present time, by the county assessment, it stands at 2,124,925*l.*, being an advance at the rate of 5,900 per cent.

Some idea may be formed of the rapid advance of the borough of Liverpool, from a comparison of the state of the Lancashire boroughs 150 years ago, by which we find that it was then put down for the land-tax, at a smaller sum than the borough of Wigan:—

	£.	s.	d.
Wigan being charged	205	3	8
Liverpool	168	13	10
Preston	135	2	2
Lancaster	67	15	3

Regarding the state of population, we have no means of estimating its progressive increase after the introduction of the cotton manufacture, and prior to the census of 1801. At the period of this census, the population of the county was 672,565; by the census of 1841, it was found to be 1,667,064.

A curious subject of inquiry offers itself in endeavours to ascertain the proportion of our present population which has resorted to Lancashire from other districts, attracted by an improved market for their labour. Some proximate estimate of this for the last 40 years may be arrived at, by adding to the census of 1801 a rate of 14 per cent. increase upon every 10 years, being about the average rate of increase in other parts of the kingdom. This ratio of increase would bring the population in 1841, to the sum of 1,135,934; while the real amount of population, as shown by the census of 1841, is 1,667,064. If we deduct from these, what would have been the supposed population under the average increase, 1,135,934, we have a population amounting to 531,130, whose presence is the result of immigration from other districts, in the course of the last 40 years.

It will have been remarked, that there has been an immense increase of population in all the large towns and busy manufacturing places, whilst in other adjoining townships the increase has been extremely slight, and in a few cases there has been an absolute decrease.

It has been shown, however, that the landed property of the county (and it might be said of the whole kingdom) has partaken largely of the advantages arising from the introduction of manufactures. That the lands even of the remotest districts have become largely increased in value. That within the hundred of Salford we do not observe that in any case there has been an increase of less than 1,500 per cent., whilst in those places where manufactures have been established, the increase has been at almost every rate from 5,000 to nearly 55,000 per cent. The advantages derived from this vast increase of wealth have principally fallen into the hands of those by whose enterprise and industry the interests of our manufacturing power have mainly been directed. There are, however, a very large amount of substantial advantages which have accrued to the owners of the soil. Many of the ancient family estates are enjoying beneficial advantages resulting from these changes, which have been estimated in various amounts, from below 10,000*l.* to upwards of 30,000*l.* a-year.

It may become matter of interest, to inquire, and to consider, by whose instrumentality this vast system of manufactures has been reared. It has *not* been the work of the *wealthy*, whether natives or foreigners. For it is a well known fact, which has grown into a proverb in Manchester, that "if a stranger brings a fortune to Manchester, and embarks it in trade, he loses it; but if he brings talent and industry, he makes a fortune." It will not be supposed to have originated with the landed proprietary of the country, who have ever peacefully enjoyed the accumulating revenues of their estates. Speaking of them as a class, Dr.

Whitaker, in his "History of Whalley," (1800), describes them, as "fond of married life,"—"possessed of little curiosity or ambition,"—"residing much at home,"—"pursuing domestic amusements which were more gross than costly,"—"that he had met with only one literary character, who was possessed of the family estate."

Following these disclosures, the fact becomes more and more obvious, that this vast accumulation of wealth and national advantage has come from the well directed industry of the common mass of that peculiar people whose lineage we have traced with so much interest. A people possessing little or no outward property, but being richly endowed with those valuable qualities, persevering industry, intelligence, and enterprise, and of whose dealings it is said, that they were conducted with "*plainness and downrightness*." In contemplating, as we cannot fail to do, with great astonishment, the amazing combination of mind and physical power which has thus elaborated a series of undertakings of such marvellous extent and national advantage, and that too in a country of such sterile and chaotic aspect, we are ready to pardon the delusions of eastern travellers, in attributing the wonderful temples of Palmyra to beings of a superior order.

Some short period of time, perhaps now a very brief one, will determine, whether our manufacturing industry shall continue to exalt the British name, or whether it shall speedily depart our coasts. Whether that noble spirit of our people, so deservedly admired, shall at length be broken down and yield itself to pauperism, or whether it is still possessed of elasticity to overcome the crisis. Already have this people left on record, matter which will long and pleasurably interest the *historian*. But what must be our feelings if we are to believe that the destinies of such a people are henceforth to be bent towards destruction; and their memory be left only "to point a moral, or adorn a tale."

On the Origin, Custody, and Value of Parish Registers, with an Abstract of the Registers of the Collegiate Church of Manchester.

By the Rev. RICHARD PARKINSON, B.D., Canon.

[Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association, on Thursday, June 24, 1842.]

I HAVE thought it would not be uninteresting to this Association to receive a brief statement of the contents of the parish registers of the collegiate church of Manchester, both as being connected with the place where the meeting is now held, and as being probably the largest, and, with some exceptions, perhaps the most perfect of all parish registers now in existence, the total number of baptisms, marriages, and burials there recorded being 554,017.

The first order for the keeping of such registers which we find on record, is an injunction issued in the 30th year of Henry VIII. by Cromwell, the King's Vicar-General, which ordained that "in all churches a register should be kept of every wedding, christening, and buriall within the same parish, for ever."* This injunction, which was issued in the year 1538, was extensively complied with, and I have seen many parish registers bearing date from that year. The next and more explicit order

* Baker's Chronicle, p. 424.

on the subject is an injunction issued in the reign of Edward VI., in 1547, which is as follows:—

“That the parson, vicar, or curate, and parishioners of every parish within this realm, shall in their churches and chapels keep one book, or register, wherein they shall write the day and year of every wedding, christning, and burial made within their parish for their time, and so every man succeeding them likewise; and therein shall write every person’s name that shall be so wedded, christned, or buried. And for the safe keeping of the same book the parish shall be bound to provide, of their common charges, one sure cofer, with two locks and keys, whereof the one to remain with the parson, vicar, or curate, and the other with the wardens of every parish, church, or chapel, wherein the said book shall be laid up; which book they shall every Sunday take forth, and in the presence of the said wardens, or one of them, write and record in the same all the weddings, christnings, and burials, made the whole week before, and that done, to lay up the book in the said cofer, as afore. And for every time that the same shall be omitted, the party that shall be in the fault thereof shall forfeit to the said church *iii^s iiiii^d*, to be employed to the poor men’s box of that parish.”*

These injunctions were further enforced by Queen Elizabeth, in whose reign, a protestation being appointed to be made and subscribed by ministers at institution, one head of it was,—“I shall keep the register book, according to the Queen’s Majesty’s injunctions.” But what was and still continues to be the law of the church on this subject is contained in the 70th canon of the “Constitutions and Canons Ecclesiastical,” which were issued in the year 1603, and still remain in force. The canon is as follows:—

“Registers in Churches and Chapels.

“In every parish church and chapel within this realm shall be provided one parchment book at the charge of the parish, wherein shall be written the day and year of every christening, wedding, and burial which have been in that parish since the time that the law was made in that behalf, so far as the ancient books thereof can be procured, but especially since the beginning of the reign of the late Queen. And for the safe keeping of the said book, the churchwardens, at the charge of the parish, shall provide one sure coffer, with three locks and keys, whereof one to remain with the minister and the other two with the churchwardens severally; so that neither the minister without the two churchwardens, nor the churchwardens without the minister, shall at any time take that book out of the said coffer. And henceforth upon every Sabbath-day, immediately after morning or evening prayer, the minister and churchwardens shall take the said parchment book out of the said coffer, and the minister, in the presence of the churchwardens, shall write and record in the said book the names of all persons married and buried in that parish in the week before, and the day and year of every such christening, marriage, and burial; and that done, they shall lay up that book in the coffer, as before; and the minister and churchwardens, unto every page of that book, when it shall be filled with such inscriptions, shall subscribe

* Sparrow’s Injunctions, par. 5.

their names. And the churchwardens shall, once every year, within one month after the five and twentieth day of March, transmit unto the bishop of the diocese, or his chancellor, a true copy of the names of all persons christened, married, or buried in their parish in the year before (ended the said five and twentieth day of March), and the certain days and months in which every such christening, marriage, and burial was had, to be subscribed with the hands of the said minister and churchwardens, to the end the same may faithfully be preserved* in the registry of the said bishop, which certificate shall be received without fee; and if the minister or churchwardens shall be negligent† in performance of anything herein contained, it shall be lawful for the bishop, or his chancellor, to convent them, and proceed against every of them as contemners of this our constitution.”†

But what, probably, caused these injunctions to be more rigidly observed than hitherto, was an Act of the 6 and 7 of William and Mary, c. 6, which brought sharper eyes than before to inspect the parish registers, and see that they were duly kept. This curious Act is entitled,—“An Act for granting to His Majesty certaine rates and duties upon Marriages, Births, and Burials, and upon Batchelors and Widowers for the terme of Five Yeares, for carrying on the Warr against France with vigour.”

The preamble, after stating the reasons for the passing of this Act, goes on to say, “that from and after the first day of May, in the yeare of our Lord One thousand six hundred ninety and five, for and dureing the terme of five yeares, to commence and bee accounted from the said first day of May, and noe longer, there shall be raised, levied, and paid to His Majesty, his heires and successores, (over and above all other duties whatsoever,) for and upon the burial of all persons who shall bee buried within the said terme of five yeares, att any place within the kingdome of England, dominion of Wales, and towne of Berwick-upon-Tweed, the severall and respective duties and sums of money hereinafter mentioned, (that is to say)—

For and upon the burial of every person, the sum of foure shillings.

Of the degree of duke of England, Scotland, or Ireland, 50*l*.

over and above the 4*s*.

For a duchess, 50*l*. over and above the 4*s*.

Marquis and marchioness, 40*l*. over and above the 4*s*.

Earl and countess, 30*l*. over and above the 4*s*.

and in like manner for each grade, down to a simple gentleman, 1*l*.

It is then enacted, that in default of payment of the said duties, they may be recovered by distress “upon the lands, tenements, and hereditaments, or the goods and chattels.”

It further levies “for and upon the birth of every person and

* “Faithfully be preserved.” And being so, it is good evidence, and the falsifying of it is punishable at common law; for instance, one was fined 200*l*. for forging the entry of a marriage.

† “Shall be negligent.” In all the three injunctions of Henry VIII., Edward VI., and Queen Elizabeth, the penalty upon the person in fault was 3*s*. 4*d*., one-half to the poor’s box, the other half to the repairs of the church.—See *Burn’s Ecc. Law, Register Book*.”

‡ *Gibson’s Codex Juris Anglicani*, vol. i. 229.

child (except the child or children of such as receive alms), the sum of two shillings."

For the eldest son of a duke, 30*l.* over and above the 2*s.*

Eldest son of a marquis, 25*l.* ,, ,,

and so on in proportion to quality.

And again, "for and upon the respective marriage of every person (except such as receive alms), the sum of two shillings and sixpence."

A duke, 50*l.* over and above the 2*s.* 6*d.*

A marquis, 40*l.* ,, ,,

An earl, 30*l.* ,, ,,

and so on according to quality.

Among the various provisions of this Act I find the following:—

"And bee it further enacted, for the better levying and collecting the duties granted by this Act, That all persons in holy orders, deans, parsons, deacons, viccars, curates, and their or any of their substitutes, doe, within their respective parishes, precincts, and places, take an exact and true account, and keep a register in writing, of all and every person or persons married, buried, christened, or borne in his or their respective parishes or precincts, or in such common burying-places as their respective parishioners are usually buried; into which book or register the collectors for the respective parishes and places, and all other persons concerned, shall have free accesse to view the same att all seasonable times without any fee or reward. And if any such parson or minister shall refuse or neglect to keep a true register thereof, as before is directed, such parson or minister soe offending shall forfeit the sum of One hundred pounds, to bee recovered by such person as shall sue for the same in any of His Majesties courts of record, att Westminster, by an action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, wherein noe essoign, wager of law, or protection shall bee allowed, and wherein the prosecutor shall recover his full costs, the moiety of which forfeiture shall bee to the use of the king's majestie, his heires and successors, and the other moiety to the persons who shall informe and sue for the same."*

We cannot wonder if, during these five years at least, parish registers were kept with the most punctual accuracy!

Though Cromwell's injunctions were issued in the year 1538, yet the registers of the collegiate church do not commence before the year 1573. No doubt the unsettled state of the collegiate body, and the various changes which it was continually undergoing at and after that period, are sufficient to account for the neglect of these injunctions at that time; what was the immediate cause of the observance of them in the year 1573, can only now be matter of conjecture. It appears, however, from Hollingworth, that in that year injunctions were issued to the college by the "Archbishop of York, and other the Queen's Majesty's Commissioners for causes ecclesiastical within the province of York, about residence of the warden and fellows, and diligent and constant preaching every Sunday in the church of Manchester;" and this injunction may have led indirectly to the observance of the law with regard to the keeping of parish registers. Whatever may have been the cause, the registers of births, marriages, and deaths, commence in August, 1573, and are continued, with the following exceptions, to the present day. In

* Statutes of the Realm, vol. vi., pp. 568 and 577.

the baptismal register for the year 1589, one leaf is lost, which contained the registers for five months of that year; and during the period of the usurpation, a chasm occurs in all the registers for eight years and nearly three months. With these exceptions, the registers are perfect. I have caused the returns to be made out monthly, quarterly, annually, and in periods of 20 years; so that they may be inspected either minutely, or in a more summary manner. I am in justice bound to add that the following abstract was compiled according to my wishes by Mr. Palmer, who combines much antiquarian reading and architectural skill, with unwearied industry. It will, perhaps, be sufficient for our present object, to read the summary drawn up in periods of 20 years.

Number of Baptisms, Marriages, and Burials recorded in the Register Books of the Collegiate Church, Manchester, from their commencement in the year 1573, to the end of the year 1841, showing the total amount every 20 years.

Periods of 20 Years.	Baptisms.	Marriages.	Burials.
From 1573 to 1580, both inclusive	1,439	367	1,117
From 1581 to 1600, ditto	3,992	808	4,670
From 1601 to 1620, ditto	5,145	1,587	4,991
From 1621 to 1640, ditto	5,654	1,644	5,700
From 1641 to 1653, ditto	2,681	634	4,032
From 1654 to 1661, this portion is missing			
From 1662 to 1680, both inclusive	3,533	1,340	4,194
From 1681 to 1700, ditto	4,135	1,587	5,193
From 1701 to 1720, ditto	5,105	2,701	5,568
From 1721 to 1740, ditto	8,144	3,931	8,238
From 1741 to 1760, ditto	12,866	5,587	11,633
From 1761 to 1780, ditto	19,750	8,436	13,806
From 1781 to 1800, ditto	42,995	20,888	24,738
From 1801 to 1820, ditto	59,823	30,413	20,604
From 1821 to 1841, ditto	104,592	53,316	26,380
Total	279,914	133,239	140,864
Total of Baptisms, Marriages, and Burials recorded . . 554,017			

I ought to state, that I have procured also the registers of the churches of St. Mary, St. John, and St. Ann, so as to make the registers of the townships of Manchester and Salford, up to a certain period, tolerably complete. But the numbers in these churches have been so stationary, and bear so small a proportion to the total number, as to affect very little any question which regards the comparison of one period with another.

I will venture now to make a few remarks arising out of the consideration of these voluminous registers.

With regard to baptisms—they are, of course, no guide as to the actual amount of the population of the place at any given time; but they may be extremely useful in ascertaining the advance or retrogression of the population, by comparing their numbers at one period and at another, when there is no cause in operation to affect them except the number of births. But in later periods, the vast immigration of Irish Roman Catholics, who do not of course appear in this register, greatly reduces their value for any such purpose.

The register of burials is tolerably complete up to the opening of the Rushholme burial-ground, which took place in the year 1822. Since that time many burial-grounds have been opened, and this return ceases to be of much value for statistical purposes.

But the most complete portion of the register is that of marriages, which is perfect for the whole parish up to July, 1837, when the new system of registration commenced. Now it would appear that, taking extensive periods of time into view, which we are here enabled to do, an accurate record of all the marriages solemnized in any given place is the best criterion that can be taken to ascertain the *progress* of population in such place, next to that of actual enumeration. Taking this test as our guide, the marriage register before us will show the progress of population in Manchester and Salford (though of course only as an approximation to the truth) in a very striking manner.

The marriage register, as I have said, embraces the whole parish; but as the *fluctuations* in population chiefly affect the townships of Manchester and Salford, we will confine our attention to these alone.

Now the population of these townships in the year 1773, as taken by the Rev. John Whittaker and Dr. Percival, amounted to 27,246. The annual number of marriages at that period, taken on an average of 10 years, is 444, which, multiplied by 65,* gives a result of nearly 2,000 more than the number ascertained by actual enumeration. The average number of the marriages, taken in the same manner, at the respective periods of 1801, 1811, 1821, and 1831, also multiplied by 65, agrees with a considerable degree of accuracy with the censuses of these respective periods; and this seems to justify us in applying the same proceeding backwards, and in this way tracing the population to the earliest period of this register. By pursuing this process, we find the average population of these townships, taken in periods of 20 years, to have been as follows:—

Between 1821 and 1841 inclusive	. .	173,000	
„ 1801 „ 1820	„ . .	98,500	{ Rather above the average; equal to the highest.
„ 1781 „ 1800	„ . .	67,800	
„ 1761 „ 1780	„ . .	27,430	
„ 1741 „ 1760	„ . .	17,940	
„ 1721 „ 1740	„ . .	12,740	
„ 1701 „ 1720	„ . .	8,775	
„ 1681 „ 1700	„ . .	5,135	
„ 1661 „ 1780	„ . .	4,550	
„ 1641 „ 1660	„ . .	3,250	{ Eight years are missing; the average of the 12 years re- corded is taken.
„ 1621 „ 1640	„ . .	5,330	
„ 1600 „ 1620	„ . .	5,135	
„ 1581 „ 1600	„ . .	2,600	
„ 1573 „ 1580	„ . .	2,990	

Though it may appear at first sight that so small an amount of population as 3,000 assigned to the townships of Manchester and Salford between 1573 and 1580 is hardly consistent with the statement contained in a petition to the Crown by the inhabitants in the year 1578,

* It appears, from statistical returns, that the number of persons married in any one year in the towns of Leith and Aberdeen, is, to the whole population, in the proportion of 1 to 130, which is the number assumed in the present case.

that the parish* contained "nigh 10,000 souls," yet we must remember that probably that statement might be a little exaggerated to answer a present purpose; and more especially, that the population of the agricultural parts of this vast parish, filled with the tenants and dependants of a numerous resident gentry, bore a much larger proportion to that of these townships than it does at present. Whoever looks at Hollingworth's map of these townships, taken so late as 1650, nearly 100 years after the time referred to, will see at once how little of the present town was then in existence. Market-steud-lane (not *street*), Deansgate, Cat-eaton-street, Fennel-street, and Long Millgate, composed nearly the whole town.

Taking then this table to be, for the purposes of comparison, substantially correct, we find that the population rather retrograded from 1570 to 1600; advanced rapidly from 1600 to 1640; fell back by about one-third at and about the period of the usurpation; advanced to the point from which it had receded by the year 1700; more than doubled itself in the next 40 years; repeated this duplication in the next similar period, viz., from 1740 to 1780; nearly trebled itself in the succeeding 20 years, from 1780 to 1800; advanced in the proportion of 3 to 2 from 1800 to 1820; and has about doubled itself in the last 20 years. It thus appears that by far the most rapid increase took place between 1780 and 1800.

Many interesting memoranda occur in these registers, which it would be thought, perhaps, tedious minutely to enumerate.

In 1581, "Margaret Willson, a Kendal woman, was slayne with a tree in the churchyard." Such an accident could hardly now happen in either of the townships!

In 1589, probably during the plague, the number of funerals is 70 in one month, the average at that time being not more than 20. This fact is mentioned by Hollingworth.

The plague seems to have prevailed also in 1598. The average of funerals suddenly starts up from about 18 or 19 per month to about 50, for four months successively.

In 1605 the plague made sad inroads on the inhabitants, the register showing 188, 289, and 252 funerals per month; and all marriages and christenings cease for these three months! This must have been a most melancholy visitation.

In 1623 again, the funerals are suddenly doubled, probably from the same cause.

In 1645 this visitation again returns. The funerals now are as high as 310 in one month, though the average is only about 20!

In 1686 there seems to be a partial return of the plague; probably also in 1711. In 1715 there is a great mortality.

During the cholera in 1832, the number of funerals in one month was 513, the average per month at that period being little more than 100.

On the 26th February, 1837, there were 369 baptisms in one day.†

* The parish consists of 32 townships, of which the townships of Manchester and Salford are two, though much the largest in point of present population.

† This was just before the new Registration Act came into operation. The service was performed by the Rev. Henry Fielding, M.A., at that time one of the chaplains of the college. It may be added, that the number of banns of marriage published each Sunday in the Collegiate Church averages more than 150 couples.

But I must now bring these remarks to a close, apologizing to the audience, and especially to those who are strangers in Manchester, for having detained them so long with a subject which has probably more interest for myself than for many of those whom I have now had the honour of addressing. I felt that matters of local interest would not be unacceptable to an Association which considers such topics to be not beneath its regard, and have therefore ventured to draw your attention to a subject which required, perhaps, the apology of being connected with the locality which the Association has now honoured with its presence, to justify its introduction, in this prominent manner, to your notice.

Capital Punishments in Lancashire during the last Sixty Years.

By R. W. HOPKINS, Esq.

[Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association, at Manchester,
24th June, 1842.]

SIR,

Preston, June 22, 1842.

THE subject of capital punishments having excited much attention of late years, it occurred to me that the enclosed paper might possibly be interesting to some of the members of the British Association, attending the proceedings of the Statistical Section, of which I understand you are the president. It contains "An Account of the Number of Persons capitally convicted who were executed, within the County Palatine of Lancaster, in each Year, from the Year 1782, inclusive, and the crimes for which they severally received sentence of Death."

It appears that within a period of less than 60 years last past, 260 persons have undergone the extreme penalty of the law, in this county, 10 of whom were females.

The last execution comprised in this statement took place at Kirkdale, in April, 1838.

The crimes of which the females were severally convicted may be ascertained by tracing the finger backwards to an asterisk (*) under the proper title, in the same line of figures.

I believe the contents of this paper to be very nearly if not quite, accurate; but it must *not* be considered as an *official document*. With this understanding, I request you to exercise your own discretion as to laying it before the Statistical Section, or not,

I am, Sir, your most obedient humble servant,

R. W. HOPKINS.

To G. W. Wood, Esq., M.P.

&c. &c. &c.

[A glance at the several classes of offences will show how much of the decline in the number of executions results merely from changes in our criminal code. ED.]

Police Statistics of the Week's End in Manchester. By Sir CHARLES SHAW, Chief Commissioner of Police.

[Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association, at Manchester, 25th June, 1842.]

By consulting the following Table we find a clue to the discovery of some of the sources of crime and immorality which seem to have escaped general observation:—

We find that out of 646 offenders, 320 had wanted employment on an average of 8 months and 25 days previous to their apprehension.

That of 326 persons in employment, and receiving weekly wages, 318 had been paid on Saturdays.

That of 146*l.* 12*s.* 8½*d.* (money in the possession of offenders on leaving their homes), 91*l.* 0*s.* 7½*d.* was obviously squandered in promoting drunkenness, crime, and misery.

That the number of children exposed to want by such improper expenditure, amounted to 674.

That 27 persons were actually paid in beer shops, &c., thereby placing them in the most favourable position to get drunk.

That of 646 only 53 prisoners had been visited by clergymen and received religious instruction.

We find, that of 646 taken into custody, 446 were natives of England; 14 of Wales; 14 of Scotland; and 172 of Ireland.

That 299 were of the Established Church; 85, Roman Catholics; 45, of Dissenting Churches; and 217 stated they had no religion.

From which analysis we infer that the greater portion of crime, debauchery, &c., which takes place on Saturdays and Sundays, is caused—

1stly. By the weekly payment of wages on Saturdays.

2ndly. By payment of wages in beer shops, public houses, &c.

3rdly. By want of proper religious instruction.

4thly. By want of some employment.

Statement and Analysis of Cases of Misdemeanour brought before the Police of Manchester on Saturdays and Sundays, from the 22nd of January to the 15th of June, 1842.

Number of Prisoners and their Trades or Occupations.

MALES.		Occupations.	No.
1st Class.—Most laborious and active.		Foundrymen,	95
		Sawyers,	
		Smiths,	
		Carpenters,	
		Porters, &c.	
2nd Class.—Less laborious and active.		Bricklayers,	107
		Masons,	
		Turners,	
		Cabinet Makers,	
		Hawkers, &c.	
3rd Class.—Sedentary but least inactive.		Shoemakers,	113
		Weavers,	
		Tinkers,	
		Cotton Spinners,	
		Garders, &c.	
4th Class.—Most sedentary and inactive.		House Painters,	119
		Dyers,	
		Tailors,	
		Watchmakers,	
		Clerks, &c.	
		Educated and Professional Men	6
		Total male prisoners	440

FEMALES.

Occupations.	No. Married. According to state	No. Single. their own ments.	Total.
Employed in factories	17	17
Employed otherwise	4	20	24
Unemployed	10	71	81
	14	108	122
Prostitutes	84
Total female prisoners	206

MALES AND FEMALES.

Total number of prisoners 646

<i>Times in Custody.</i>		<i>Charges.</i>	
Once	387	Drunk	125
Twice	127	Drunk and Fighting	71
Thrice	68	Drunk and Disorderly	276
Several times	64	Disorderly	169
		Indecent conduct	3
		Wilful Damage	2
	646		646

Length of Time In or Out of Employment, according to their own Statements.

	No. of Prisoners.	Aggregate Length of Time.	Average Length of Time.
		Yrs. Mths. Days.	Yrs. Mths. Days.
In employment	326	713 6 2	2 2 7½
Out of employment	320	353 10 5	0 8 25
Total	646

Payment of Wages to the Employed..

Paid in public houses	27
Paid elsewhere	299
	326
Paid on Mondays	1
,, Tuesdays	0
,, Wednesdays	0
,, Thursdays	2
,, Fridays	5
,, Saturdays	318
	326

Prisoners' Cash.

In prisoners' possession before being taken into custody	£. s. d.
,, ,, after being taken into custody	146 12 8½
	55 12 0½
Difference, showing the amount of money squandered	£91 0 7½

<i>Proportion of Old Offenders.</i>		<i>Religious Advantages.</i>	
Known to the police	149	Visited by clergymen	53
Unknown to the police. . . .	497	Not visited by clergymen	593
	<hr/> 646		<hr/> 646
<i>Religious Denominations.</i>		<i>Country.</i>	
Established Church	299	Natives of England	446
Roman Catholics	85	Wales	14
Dissenters	45	Scotland	14
Undefined	217	Ireland	172
	<hr/> 646		<hr/> 646
<i>Domestic Condition.</i>			
Unmarried	372	Married, without children	31
Married	274	Married, with children	243
	<hr/> 646		<hr/> 274
Number of prisoners' children 674			

Vital Statistics of the Spinners and Piecers employed in the Fine Spinning Mills of Manchester. By JOHN SHUTTLEWORTH, Esq.

[Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association at Manchester, 25th June, 1842.]

THE Tables which I have to present to the Section, relate to the 19 cotton mills in Manchester which are engaged in spinning fine numbers of yarn. These are the whole of the establishments in this town so employed. As such mills require to be kept at a higher temperature than is necessary in spinning common numbers, it has been generally considered that the health of the workpeople engaged in them was exposed to more injury than attended any other kind of factory labour. In consequence of this prevailing opinion, and as the conditions under which the fine spinners are placed are certainly somewhat peculiar, it was thought desirable, when the Factory Commission was appointed, in 1833, to collect a body of information which should be confined exclusively to them, as a separate and distinct class of spinners. The parties concerned in the inquiry, anxious to have the facts collected under such circumstances as to entitle the statement of them to every confidence, requested me, as a person wholly unconnected with the spinning business, and having no interested feeling in the result of the investigation, to undertake the responsibility of conducting it. I accordingly drew up a series of questions, to be answered personally and individually by each operative spinner, to agents, consisting of professional accountants and one of our most respectable and intelligent surgeons, who were employed to go through the mills and receive the answers from the workmen. That the answers might be given considerably and after due preparation, every spinner was furnished with a list of the questions a day or two before the agents visited them to receive their replies. The facts and statements, thus most carefully and scrupulously collected, were then arranged by me under the heads exhibited in the tables, and, afterwards, delivered in evidence to the Factory Commissioners sitting in

Manchester at the time, and their accuracy verified on oath by myself and the agents employed. It happened, however, that the documents were not forwarded to London till the Commissioners sitting there had decided on closing the inquiry, and these tables, therefore, were not included in the Report of the Commission. As the information they contain is entitled to the fullest reliance, and has not hitherto been published, I have been requested to offer it to this Section as a contribution which may possess some interest and importance in Vital Statistics.

The 19 mills in question worked 69 hours per week, and employed 837 spinners who were adults. The three tables subjoined contain the results of our investigation concerning the ages and health of these men, of their families, and of the piecers working for them.

The general results are as follows:—

There are 837 spinners, whose united ages are 27,367, making an average of 32 years for each spinner. They have worked in cotton mills 19,133 years, which is equal to 22 years and 10 months for each. Of the total number, 255 or nearly $30\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. were absent from work on account of sickness in the year 1832, an aggregate of 6,296 $\frac{1}{2}$ days, or an average of 24 $\frac{1}{2}$ days for each of the 255 who were sick, or 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ days for the whole number of spinners employed. Of the 837 spinners, 621 or 74 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. reported themselves to have “good health,” 171 or 20 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to have “pretty good health;” and 45 or about 5 per cent. to have “indifferent health.”

The 837 spinners employed 3,233 boys and girls as piecers, or something less than an average of 4 piecers to each spinner. Of these piecers 488, or 12 per cent. were relations of the spinners.

Of the spinners, 707, or rather more than 84 per cent. were married. The united ages of the wives, when married, was 15,376 $\frac{1}{2}$ years, equal to 21 years for each. The number of years of the marriages was 7,907 years and 5 months, equal to 11 years and 2 months for each marriage. In this period 26 of the wives, or rather more than $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., were dead, and 681, or nearly 96 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., were living. Of the living, 422, or 62 per cent., were reported to enjoy “good health;” 151 or 22 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to have “pretty good;” and 108, or 15 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent., to have “indifferent health.” The married spinners had had 3,166 children, equal to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ to each marriage. Of these children, 1,922, or 60 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the whole, were alive, and 1,244, or 39 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., were dead. Of the children alive, 1,225, and of those who were dead, 1,221, making 2,446, or 77 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., had never been occupied in any kind of work. Of the whole, 640, or about 22 per cent., had worked in cotton mills, and 58, or near 2 per cent., had worked at other employments. Out of the 640 who had worked in mills 18, or about 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent., were dead, and out of the 58 who had worked at other employments 4, or nearly 7 per cent., were dead. The cases of distortion among the 640 factory children were 8, or 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and there were 7 cases or something more than 1 per cent. of mutilations from machinery.

No. I.—Number and Ages of Fine Spinners, the Time during which engaged in the Trade, and their Sickness during the year 1832, working 69 hours per week.

Firms.	Under 21				21 to 25				26 to 30				31 to 35				36 to 40			
	Number.	Average Years worked in Mills.	Number of Days sick in 1832.	Average Days of Sickness of those who were sick.	Number.	Average Years worked in Mills.	Number of Days sick in 1832.	Average Days of Sickness of those who were sick.	Number.	Average Years worked in Mills.	Number of Days sick in 1832.	Average Days of Sickness of those who were sick.	Number.	Average Years worked in Mills.	Number of Days sick in 1832.	Average Days of Sickness of those who were sick.	Number.	Average Years worked in Mills.	Number of Days sick in 1832.	Average Days of Sickness of those who were sick.
T. and R. Barnes	8	..	195	..	184	..	1,633	..	198	..	1,031	..	153	..	860½	..	154	..	592	..
Bazley and Son	2	9	13	14	326	108	21	20	160	32	5	23	6	24	54	18
Bellhouse	3	13	7	19	4	4	5	23	7	27	96	24
Buckham and Co.	1	11	2	19	2	22	90	90	2	30
Carruthers	4	14	7	7	4	19	2	21	4	24	21	21
Falkner and Owen	1	12	3	15	5	19	107	27	8	24	14	14	5	28	7	7
B. Gray	9	15	58	29	10	20	22	7	8	23	164	82	6	29	4	4
Houldsworth.	23	15	174	25	20	18	64	7	20	24	81	10	19	28	48	8
Kennedy and Co.	1	15	6	20	6	6	3	21	1	1	1	26
McConnel and Co.	1	14	1	1	36	13	309	15	30	24	236	19	30	24	201	20	21	28	169	16
S. M. Moore.	6	13	243	121	3	18	14	14	5	24	5	27
A. and G. Murray	1	9	25	14	256	32	42	18	82	9	14	22	14	14	21	28	17	8
Nichols	1	13	4	19	126	42	5	26	2	29
T. and R. Ogden	3	12	194	97	25	13	293	20	9	19	94	18	17	24	25	8	18	29	114	22
Plant and Son	11	13	42	6	11	19	88	12	5	23	13	7	6	26
B. Sandford	11	13	101	50	7	18	7	7	8	24	33	11	5	29	14	14
W. Shaw.	1	16	2	21	4	22	37	18	8	26	30	30
Taylor and Shatwell	2	19	5	25	28	14	2	30	7	7
J. and L. Williams	4	14	3	18	1	25	6	28	2	2
Total	8	..	195	..	184	..	1,633	..	198	..	1,031	..	153	..	860½	..	154	..	592	..

No. I.—*Number and Ages of Fine Spinners, &c.—continued.*

Firms.	41 to 45				46 to 50				51 to 55				55 to 60				Above 60				
	Number.	Average Years worked in Mills.	Number of Days sick in 1832.	Average Days of Sick-ness of those who were sick.	Number.	Average Years worked in Mills.	Number of Days sick in 1832.	Average Days of Sick-ness of those who were sick.	Number.	Average Years worked in Mills.	Number of Days sick in 1832.	Average Days of Sick-ness of those who were sick.	Number.	Average Years worked in Mills.	Number of Days sick in 1832.	Average Days of Sick-ness of those who were sick.	Number.	Average Years worked in Mills.	Number of Days sick in 1832.	Average Days of Sick-ness of those who were sick.	
T. and R. Barnes	6	31	10	5	1	25	1	46	
Bazley and Son .	4	23	120	120	
Bellhouse	5	33	35	35	
Buckham and Co. .	1	30	1	26	
Caruthers	2	33	120	120	
Falkner and Owen	2	32	14	14	2	36	3	3	4	40	147	73	..	1	43	270	270	
B. Gray	8	31	5	5	6	36	3	3	3	39	
Houldsworth. . .	13	31	75	12	
Kennedy and Co.	4	37	267	133	3	39	
McConnel and Co.	10	32	341	57	2	35	28	28	1	40	60	60	..	2	42	
S. M. Moore. . . .	3	28	60	60	2	35	
A. and G. Murray	11	30	14	14	4	35	
Nicholls	2	35	
T. and R. Ogden	15	32	67	13	4	40	35	35	1	42	28	28	..	2	37	
Plant and Son . .	3	32	15	7	3	37	
B. Sandford . . .	4	33	31	15	4	26	35	35	1	40	
W. Shaw.	2	30	1	34	
Taylor and Shatwell.	
J. and L. Williams	1	30	1	46	
Total	89	..	787	..	33	..	488	..	12	..	235	5	..	270	..	1	..	14	..

No II.—Spinners' Families, and their Health.

Firms.	Spinners			and Wives				and Children.				In Family.								
	Unmarried.	Total Age.	Married.	Total Ages.	Total when Married.	Total Dead.	Total Alive.	Yrs. Mo.	Health.			Total Dead.	Total Alive.	Number Born.	Never Worked.	Worked in Mills.		Worked in other Employment.	Cases of Distortion.	Cases of Mutilation by Machinery.
									Good.	Pretty Good.	Indifferent.					Alive.	Dead.			
T. and R. Barnes	2	67	41	1317	826	4	37	425-2	26	1	10	200	122	78	77	78	44	..	1	..
Bazley and Son	10	266	42	1271	892	3	39	321-11	27	11	1	145	92	53	72	52	20	1
Beilhouse and Sons.	4	111	25	894	494	..	25	305	13	7	5	105	55	50	32	50	20	..	3	..
Buckham and Co.	2	54	6	207	122	..	6	71	5	1	..	33	15	18	10	18	5
Carruthers	2	51	13	432	285	..	13	106	3	4	6	53	33	20	25	20	8
Falkner and Owen	3	65	23	794	498	..	23	268-6	13	8	2	95	70	25	44	24	26	1
Benjamin Gray	6	162	35	1190	832	..	35	338-6	22	8	5	132	87	45	54	44	29	1	..	2 ^b
T. Houldsworth	10	278	95	3259	2182	7	90	1132-7	63	12	17	430	256	174	156	173	97	1	..	1 ^a
Kennedy and Co.	2	58	9	272	190	..	9	76-8	6	1	2	37	25	12	17	12	8
McConnell and Co.	14	359	115	3774	2507	5	110	1220-11	73	16	21	476	303	173	212	170	90	3	..	1 ^c
S. M. Moore.	5	127	19	686	403	..	19	246-6	11	8	..	98	68	30	39	29	24	1	..	1 ^d
A. and G. Murray	19	543	102	3345	2225	..	102	1031-8	82	14	6	420	233	187	151	185	75	2	7	..
Nicholls	1	26	13	444	291	..	13	147-6	5	2	6	75	45	30	26	30	18
T. and R. Ogden	25	644	70	2570	1480	1	69	978-6	25	31	13	378	222	156	127	153	73	3	22	3 ^e
Plant and Son	5	115	34	1122	777	1	33	312-6	14	11	8	131	87	44	58	41	24	1	2	1 ^e
B. Sandford	13	316	27	1001	588	3	24	353	18	5	1	144	89	55	49	53	35	1	5	1 ^b
W. Shaw.	1	30	17	622	345	1	16	252	10	4	2	89	60	29	35	26	25	3
Taylor and Shatwell	2	57	7	244	139	..	7	85	4	3	..	50	24	26	17	26	7
J. and L. Williams	4	94	14	490	300	3	11	187-6	3	5	3	75	36	39	24	37	12	..	2	..
	130	3423	707	23944	15376	28	681	7907-5	423	152	108	3166	1922	1244	1225	1221	640	18	58	4
																			8	7

^a From vaccination.
^b Small-pox.
^c Hooked.
^d Hooked.
^e Fingers caught in the wheel.
^f Fingers broken by shaft.

Lost the end of third finger.
Lost a finger.

* From vivumation.

* Small-100.

b Both natural.

c Finger caught in the wheel.

d Lost the end of third finger.

e Lost a finger.

No. III.—*Number and Health of Spinners and Piecers compared, and Treatment of the Piecers.*

Firms.	Number and Health of Spinners.					Number and Health of Piecers.					Spinners' Treatment of Piecers.					
	Number of Spinners.	Total of Ages.	Years worked in Mills.	Days absent from sickness in 1882.	Number who have Good Health.	Number who have Pretty Good Health.	Number who have indifferent Health.	Total number of Spinners or Wife.	Number of Reports that Health is injured by working in Mills.	Number of Reports that Health is injured by working in Mills.	Spinners that never punish Children.	Spinners that inflict like Punishment.	Spinners that inflict more severe Punishment.	Statement that Punishment is more frequent at the end of Weeks and Days.	Statement that it is not so.	
T. and R. Barnes . . .	43	1,334	997	211	36	5	2	257	28	11	30.2	5	35	3	5	38
Bazley and Son . . .	52	1,537	1,005	660	45	6	1	212	16	12	38.2	11	41	13.39
Bellhouse and Sons . .	29	1,005	709	135	18	11	..	95	18	2	25.2	29	1	28
Buckham and Co. . .	8	261	184	90	7	1	..	32	2	..	6.2	3	5	8
Carruthers . . .	15	483	304	284	6	5	4	50	12	9	4.2	15	6	6.3
Falkner and Owen . .	26	859	624	262	20	6	..	117	16	1	24.1	14	12	26
Benjamin Gray . . .	41	1,352	959	253	34	7	..	144	22	..	38.3	41	2	39
T. Houldsworth . . .	105	3,547	2,538	592	87	12	6	415	70	32	73.	40	63	2	27	77.1
Kennedy and Co. . .	11	330	225	7	9	1	1	33	5	2	9.	10	1	..	11	11
McConnell and Co. . .	129	4,133	2,878	1,794	101	26	2	470	53	37	61.	49	74	6	23	104.2
S. M. Moore . . .	24	813	552	317	19	5	..	91	24	1	22.1	24	24
A. and G. Murray . .	121	3,888	2,645	471	111	6	4	383	62	18	85.8	36	50	35	..	121
Nicholls . . .	14	470	332	126	5	7	2	56	15	5	6.3	14	1	13
T. and R. Ogden . . .	95	3,214	2,301	864	38	39	18	363	56	22	54.9	76	18	..	23	67.5
Plant and Son . . .	39	1,237	853	160	20	18	1	162	29	9	26.4	39	8	31
B. Sandford . . .	40	1,317	905	221	37	1	2	170	31	13	24.3	13	27	40
W. Shaw . . .	18	652	453	67	17	1	..	86	12	..	18	5	13	18
Taylor and Shatwell .	9	301	225	35	6	3	..	27	5	..	8.1	7	2	9
J. and L. Williams . .	18	584	424	2	5	11	2	40	12	6	7	18	1	17
	837	27,367	19,133	6,296	621	171	45	3,233	488	180	352.3	439	341	46	97	690.50

On the Influence of the Factory System in the developement of Pulmonary Consumption. By D. NOBLE, Esq., Surgeon, Manchester.

[*Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association at Manchester, 23rd June, 1842.*]

THE influence of the factory system, in the deterioration of health, and the production of disease, has been the subject of great diversity of opinion. It has been denounced, in the strongest terms, by physicians of the highest repute, and has been reprobated as destructive to every sound condition of the body, and as the fruitful source of consumption and scrofula. Before the Committee of the House of Commons, obtained some years ago by the late Mr. Sadler, these views were very unequivocally expressed by metropolitan members of the medical profession; and one witness, who it appeared had had some experience in the early part of his career in this centre of manufacturing industry, made bold to assert that scrofulous diseases were immeasurably more abundant in Manchester than in the metropolis and most other places; and that he thought the proportion of individuals in this district in whom such diseases were developed could not be less than one in ten. Whilst such views have been promulgated by one class of medical men, there are others who have gone into an opposite extreme, and have maintained that factory labour is actually protective from consumption and other scrofulous affections, and that, generally speaking and relatively, such deviations from sound health are less frequent here than elsewhere. Amidst such contrariety as to pure matter of fact on the part of those to whom the educated public naturally look as authorities upon such a subject, it may be very difficult to determine the real state of things. Many intelligent and well informed persons, both medical and other, do regard the working in factories, especially on the part of the young, as giving rise to pulmonary consumption, or as prematurely inducing it where a strong predisposition already exists. That in a great many instances individuals arrive at this conclusion from what they really see is undoubted; and it is also true that others are guided to it rather by prematurely theorizing concerning the effects upon the animal economy of a high temperature with sudden transitions to cold, and of the inhalation of dusty particles incident to many factory occupations. These deductions, however, may be erroneous; consumption may be as little determined by factory labour as by the average of operative pursuits, and the disease may as little abound in these districts as in those where no factory employment prevails, but which are similarly conditioned in other respects.

I propose in the present paper to examine, in the first place, to what extent the positive results obtained by the Registrar-general confirm the idea that consumption is more frequent in this manufacturing town of Manchester than in other places; these results I shall compare with corresponding ones gathered from other large towns, where little or no manufacturing prevails; and I shall then subjoin some statistical data obtained by myself from an examination, in conjunction with Mr. Ner Gardiner, the Superintendent Registrar of this district, of the registration books of the township of Manchester for a period of three years—data which will contribute in some degree to satisfy the inquiry as to the pro-

portion which the cases of consumption occurring in this place, amongst persons of various pursuits, bear to those happening to the factory population.

Before proceeding with the details of the proposed plan, I would submit a few remarks relative to the value of the evidence furnished by our national system of registration; and I am sure that, whatever be the defects of this system, all will agree that it constitutes a most important auxiliary to our other means of investigation, especially in all questions relating to certain characteristics of epidemic and contagious diseases, and above all, in the prosecution of such inquiries as the one forming the subject of the present paper. In very minute medical inquiries, or in special pathology, little or no aid can be drawn from this source; but when the object is to determine the *general* character of diseases prevalent in various divisions of the kingdom, or to estimate the agency of many outward causes in the production of fatal diseases, the facts to be gathered from judicious analysis of the registration books become of the utmost importance. The great defects to be noticed, and those of a character admitting of some correction, consist in the causes of death being generally recorded upon no better authority than the verbal report of parties giving the required information to the registrar—of parties who, unprovided with any medical certificate, furnish their answers, in many cases, in the vaguest and most unmeaning terms, so that a considerable acquaintance with popular phraseology becomes necessary to allow of an *approximation* to the real meaning.

The numerical statements which I am about to submit are taken from the third and last published Report of the Registrar-General, and the figures apply exclusively to the year 1839; but, on comparison with the foregoing reports, there is a remarkable accordance in all the main results, an accordance which furnishes one of the strongest proofs of the value of these documents in the prosecution of all inquiries demanding the aid of statistics.

According to the census of 1831 (that for 1841 not having been obtained at the period of compiling any of the yet published registration reports) there were ascertained to be resident in Manchester and Salford 49,392 families, and the entire deaths registered in 1839 amounted to 9,223, of which 1,454 are recorded as having been from consumption. This is at the rate of about 3 deaths annually from consumption to every 100 families, and of 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the deaths from all causes. This furnishes, truly, a very decided evidence of the extensive prevalence of the disease in these districts, and, taken by itself, or compared only with other instances not in all respects rightly comparable, might seem to afford a strong confirmation of the belief that factory employment, so prevalent here, was in a great degree instrumental in the production of this state of things. For, if we take Essex, one of the most purely agricultural counties in the kingdom, we shall discover that with a population of 62,403 families, exceeding by 13,000 the number for Manchester and Salford, the deaths from consumption during the same year were less than in the latter place by upwards of 250; 1,201 cases only having been recorded in the death-books of 1839. It ought, however, never to be overlooked that, in all large towns, a variety of causes, from which rural districts are in a great measure exempt, are in constant operation tending to deteriorate the general

health, such as a close atmosphere, confined dwellings, cellar residences, aggregation of individuals within very restricted spaces, irregularity of employment, and extreme variations in the rate of wages; all which circumstances considerably increase the *general* mortality rather than that from consumption in particular. For, the total number of deaths in Essex, within the year in question, was, notwithstanding its larger population, less by 3,000 than in Manchester and Salford, having been only 6,352, and the cases of consumption not quite 2 for every 100 families; from which statement it appears that in relation to the number of deaths from all causes, the cases of consumption were actually fewer in this factory district than in agricultural Essex, being in the latter 19 and in the former only 15½ per cent. Again, if a similar comparison be made with another agricultural division of the kingdom, a similar result will follow; for, in a district embracing Cambridgeshire, Huntingdonshire, and the southern parts of Lincolnshire, comprising a population of 67,351 families, the deaths from all causes were 7,306 and those from consumption 1,308, or nearly 18 per cent. of the whole; showing, as in the case of Essex, on comparison with these districts, a greatly reduced rate of mortality in general, but not quite a correspondingly low rate from consumption.

In estimating the special condition of Manchester and Salford as to the extent to which consumption prevails, it is best to institute a comparison between these towns and others similarly conditioned excepting as to manufactures. For this purpose I will take the instance of Liverpool and West Derby, a district much like our own with regard to its extent, population, general character of most of the inhabitants; and it is also more or less subject to the same commercial vicissitudes as this place, but is free from the particular evils to health and life, real or supposed, which flow especially from the prevalence of manufactures. In 1831, the census afforded a population of 43,026 families for Liverpool and West Derby, a number 6,000 below that for Manchester and Salford, and the deaths altogether for 1839 were 9,181, approaching those for Manchester and Salford, during the same year, within 42; and those recorded as from consumption amounted to 1,762, or 300 in excess of those with us, notwithstanding our greater population. At this rate, nearly four deaths from consumption annually occur in Liverpool for every 100 families, and here only three; in Liverpool these cases are little less than 20 per cent. of the deaths from all causes, and in Manchester they are only 15½. Birmingham, as another large town exempt from factory occupation, may now be drawn into the comparison. According to the census of 1831, 23,934 families resided in that locality; and, in 1839, the registered deaths were 3,639. Those from consumption amounted to 668. These numbers furnish a somewhat more favourable evidence of the value of life, and exemption also from consumption, than do those for Manchester, but only to a slight extent; for the proportion exhibited is a fraction below three deaths annually from every 100 families, from the malady in question; while with us the number is full 3 per cent. Of the deaths from all causes, about 18 per cent. were from consumption. The metropolis furnishes a smaller number of deaths from consumption, in proportion to its estimated population, than any of the preceding instances. In 1831, 373,209 families were ascertained to be resident in the metropolitan districts, and the mortality from con-

sumption in 1839, as indicated by that year's registration, reached only 7,104 in an aggregate of deaths amounting to 45,441, constituting a rate somewhat below two deaths annually from the disease now under consideration for every 100 families, and a proportion of deaths from consumption to those from all causes, corresponding exactly with that for Manchester, being somewhere about 15 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.

These numerical statements of unquestionable authenticity, drawn from the national records of the causes of death in various parts of the kingdom, supply, certainly, no corroboration of the views that have been set forth as to the extraordinary prevalence of consumption in the manufacturing districts, as compared with other localities free from manufactories. Manchester and Salford seem, on the whole, rather more exempt from the disease than some other places; decidedly more so than Liverpool; but, in comparison with the agricultural districts and the metropolis, more subject to its prevalence. It is a remarkable fact, however, that, the metropolis excepted, Manchester has fewer deaths from consumption, in proportion to the whole number of deaths, than any of the other districts above instanced; and, contrasted with the metropolis in this respect, the ratio is the same. So far we look in vain for evidence of the baleful influence of the factory system in developing and causing the increase of the disease in question.

It might, however, be imagined that, of the deaths from consumption that did occur in this place, the factory population furnished an undue proportion. With a view of ascertaining to what extent this idea would receive confirmation from the registration records, I was obligingly permitted by the Superintendent Registrar of this district, to whom, indeed, I am indebted for suggesting the present investigation, to deduce such particulars from the documents in question as seemed fitted for throwing light upon this matter. Conceiving that a period of three years would yield a fair average result, I selected the death books of the township of Manchester for the years 1838, 1839, and 1840, and took therefrom the age and stated occupation of all parties registered as deceased from "consumption," "decline," and "phthisis," between the ages of 15 and 40, admitting those that had attained the former age and rejecting such as were not below 40. My view in the detail of this proceeding was, that as Manchester, to the exclusion of the out-districts of this union, and of Ardwick, Chorlton-upon-Medlock, Hulme, and Salford, contains at least its fair share of the factory population here, it would for my present purpose furnish a tolerably just type of the remainder of the population not dwelling within the actual township; and I have, for several reasons, confined my choice of instances to those deceased between the ages of 15 and 40, because, in the first place, it is reasonable to suppose that if occupation of any kind operate very materially so as to shorten life through the production of such a disease as consumption, the affection will be developed and terminate fatally within those periods. And again, I considered that in omitting, for the purposes of this inquiry, the instances marked consumption, decline, or phthisis, when under 15 and above 40, I should be most likely to embrace the largest average of real cases, seeing that in the record of the causes of death infants of the tenderest age, even those below 12 months, are very frequently registered as having died from decline or consumption; and on the other hand, persons of very advanced years are often

similarly registered; there being a high probability that in both these extremes a large proportion of the cases thus registered have not been really of consumption, but, in the case of children, probably some mesenteric affection, and in that of persons past middle life, most likely chronic bronchitis or general decay. Not that I feel any confidence of having obtained by the present plan cases only of true consumption, for many deaths from other organic affections, especially of the heart or liver, are in all probability registered, on the imperfect report of those supplying the required information, as "decline," and others, real consumption, are very likely given in as "disease of the chest" or "weakness;" but, on the whole, I believe that, as regards numbers, a very fair accuracy will be gained, the cases improperly included being balanced by those unduly excluded.

The township of Manchester, then, with a population of about 160,000, and with an annual average of deaths amounting to 6,000, afforded 1,141 registered deaths from consumption within the three years before mentioned; and, as nearly as can be estimated, 174 of these occurred to individuals working in factories, whilst 590 were of persons registered as of various occupations, and 377 without any stated employment, wives and children for the most part, not attached to any particular pursuit. Of the 174 inmates of factories, the spinners constituted 45, the winders 49, the piecers 28, the reellers 15, carders and frame tenders each 11; 10 were stated to have wrought in factories without there being any mention of the precise occupation, and the remainder were of doublers, stretchers, batters, &c.; the deaths in none of these several classes of employment exceeding 5. In speaking of the entire number 174, I said, "as nearly as can be estimated," because some of the terms made use of in the registration-books apply alike to employments followed within and without factory walls, as, for example, the term "winder," which does not always imply the former. Being however obliged to make the most of such materials as were before me, and feeling the necessity of acting upon some general rule, I have always included, as factory operatives, parties engaged in one or two doubtful employments, and have systematically excluded the occupation of "weaver," though some whose calling would be given to the registrar as that of "weaver" would no doubt have been engaged in factory labour. The object being to gain an approximation to precision in numbers, rather than to accuracy in the particular examples, I considered that by the adoption of the above rule a fair balance might be struck, that, for instance, the exclusion of weavers from the 174 would be compensated by constantly including one or two other denominations of workpeople, not always applied to those in factories.

Now, when it is considered that the actual township includes the more central and dense parts of our population, I do not think it too much to say that, of the inhabitants between 15 and 40, not very much less than one-sixth of the whole are employed in factories; and, if so, no corroboration is afforded of the notion that consumption is disproportionately prevalent among the factory population.

It may be assumed, however, and I believe it has been, that factory labour prematurely exhausts the vital energy, and gives rise to an unusually early mortality from various diseases of a slow, chronic character. If such were the fact, we should most certainly have such early

mortality manifested in the fatal cases registered as decline. Anxious to see how far this idea would receive confirmation from the registration-books, I classified the ages of the 1,141 according to periods of five years, and obtained the following result:—

Aged.		Deaths.
15 and under 20	195
20 „ 25	243
25 „ 30	260
30 „ 35	223
35 „ 40	220
Total . . .		<u>1,141</u>

On comparing these numbers with those which the general statistics of consumption exhibit with respect to the same question, a remarkable coincidence is to be noticed, a coincidence which strongly corroborates the value of the evidence afforded by a selection of cases from the registration-books, as true consumption, on the principle of recognizing, as such, those, and those only, entered as decline and consumption, or some synonymous expression.

Sir James Clarke, in his admirable work on Tubercular Phthisis, furnishes a table showing the proportion at different ages above 15 of 1,000 deaths from the malady under discussion, a table deduced from an average of observations made promiscuously in Edinburgh, Berlin, Nottingham, Philadelphia, Chester, Carlisle, and Paris; I abstract the following from the numbers therein exhibited:—

Aged.		Number of Deaths.
15 and under 20	99
20 „ 30	285
30 „ 40	248

These numbers bear substantially the same relation to each other, as those which I have shown to prevail in manufacturing Manchester. If, from Sir James Clarke's table, we take an illustration from separate series of cases, whose aggregate amount approaches the numbers analyzed in the present paper, we shall obtain figures almost exactly corresponding with those supplied by my own analysis. Thus, by including only certain tables referring to Carlisle and Paris, we shall gain a total of 1,155, those for Manchester being 1,141; the numbers, at various ages, of the respective series, stand as follows:

Aged.		Carlisle and Paris.	Manchester.
15 and under 20	196	195
20 „ 30	515	503
30 „ 40	444	443
Total . . .		<u>1,155</u>	<u>1,141</u>

These figures present a most remarkable accordance in the ages of persons dying of consumption under very different external circumstances, and hence it would appear that our own population is not at all more liable to *early* invasion by this fatal malady than that in other places.

The general conclusion resulting from the above facts would certainly appear to be that manufactures exert no unusual agency in the production, or premature developement, of pulmonary consumption, in opposition to

the notion frequently entertained to the contrary, both by medical men and by a large portion of the educated public.

I am far from participating in the sentiment of Dr. Ure, and some others, that factory labour is protective from scrofulous diseases, and conducive to good health. On the contrary, I believe that it is most prejudicial to a sound condition of the body; but then such also, I am satisfied, is the case with a vast proportion of the occupations and habits of individuals in all classes; and I do not think, after an examination of the above data, that manufacturing industry exerts a disproportionate influence in undermining the general health, because nothing is more satisfactorily determined than that it is in this way that consumption, and other scrofulous affections, are developed in habits of body predisposed to them, rather than by causes leading to irritations in the chest; which latter notion has plainly given rise to the speculations concerning the origination of consumption in factory occupation.

The medical and other witnesses, before the recent Factory Committee of the House of Commons, dwelt upon the prevalence of scrofula in general in these districts, more than of consumption in particular. I feel very little doubt, however, that, if means existed for applying any test so generally as the present one to consumption, the conclusion would be equally at variance with the anticipation. For, as a rule, it will be admitted that where the scrofulous taint prevails extensively, so do the deaths from its particular manifestation, consumption.

On the Moral and Industrial Workhouse School about to be erected by the Guardians of the Poor of the Manchester Union. By NER GARDINER, Esq.

[Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association at Manchester, 27th June, 1842.]

At the request of your chairman, who is an *ex-officio* member of the Board of Guardians of the Manchester Union, I have forwarded to your sectional room the perspective view of the elevation of the workhouse industrial and training school, intended to be erected by the Board at Swinton. The other parts of the design are in the hands of the Poor Law Commissioners for consideration and approval, the Council of Education having already made suggestions thereon.

The building is calculated to hold 1,500 children, independently of the hospital.

The site on which it is to be erected is in every way most desirable, and the estate comprises upwards of 23 acres of land, statute measure.

Although Manchester has been formed into an Union under the Poor Law Amendment Act only 12 months last March, yet this town has made the greatest progress hitherto of any Union in entering, on a large scale, upon the important warfare with pauperism at its source, by removing the infant and youthful mind from immoral and debasing influences, and so far instructing it as to enable it to procure the means of future support.

To those who have ever been engaged in administering the poor's fund, it need not be told, that to perpetuate and increase pauperism in the most rapid way possible it requires only that the adult and aged paupers should have communication with the young.

To account for this, it may be reasoned that by far the greater portion of those who become residents of a workhouse arrive there from some of the following causes,—idleness, intemperance, misconduct, or a low standard of intellect.

With such it seems a pleasure to mislead and corrupt the ingenuous.

Immediately on the formation of the Manchester Union, the guardians of the poor entered on an investigation of the management of the workhouse, when the deficiencies in the accommodations for the children were so apparent, that it was determined to take advantage of the greater facilities afforded by the Poor Law Amendment Act for making provision for them at a distance from the Union workhouse.

The Prestwich workhouse was made available, temporarily, for the girls, of whom there are about 160 under the care of a schoolmistress and of those having the superintendence of the establishment.

The Blackley workhouse, capable of holding about 150, was fitted up for the boys, and a schoolmaster was procured from the Normal School at Glasgow, who has been engaged in his duties for nearly 12 months.

It must, of course, be presumed that in the selection for removal to the schools, children of bad or doubtful character were rejected; in those who have been taken from the contaminating influence there is a manifestly great improvement in all respects, whilst with those who have been left in the polluting atmosphere of the workhouse the moral depravity seems to have increased in an accumulating ratio in proportion to the operation of a maximum amount of vice upon the minimum of doubtful virtue.

So much has this been the case, and so much has this state of things tried the principle, that the guardians have had more trouble and annoyance with the few concentrated bad than they ever had with the whole mixed number.

Among the causes of some recent outrages committed by the younger inmates of the workhouse, one is the severe pressure on the workhouse in consequence of distress, and a number of girls and youths of indifferent character, ranging from 15 to 20 years of age, having been driven into it. Another is, that the guardians have introduced employments which have not been acceptable to this class of paupers; but the most material one has been the influence which the adult and more aged poor have had and ever use amongst this class of residents in a workhouse, and which in the instances brought forward have been traced to this source.

Now, if one of the results of rearing this workhouse school should be the reducing these elements of confusion into a state of quietude and order (without which no establishment, or business, can be well conducted), even then sufficient will have been obtained to compensate for all the expense and trouble that may be occasioned by its erection.

But there are other considerations to be weighed: numbers of infants and children come into the care of the guardians of the poor as their natural protectors, such as those deserted by their parents, the fatherless, and the orphan.

It should be inquired, what are the duties of parents? Not to sustain and bring up only, but to teach. To teach what? Not the elementary knowledge of reading and writing alone, but the way how to apply them, namely, by instruction in sound moral and religious views.

Even here the task is not ended; the good parent will add to these

the knowledge of some occupation by which his child shall become an useful and beneficial member of the society of which eventually he may form a part.

These, then, are the duties of the guardian of the poor also, who stands relatively as respects the orphan and others in the condition of a responsible parent, answerable to society and to his own conscience for the treatment which they may receive at his hands.

For such reasons, the guardians of the poor of the Manchester Union are about to erect the moral and industrial school, of which the perspective view is submitted to the Statistical section of the members of the British Association.

On the increasing Operation of Loan Funds in Ireland. By
HENRY JOHN PORTER, Esq., F.S.S., Tandragee.

[Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association at Manchester,
24th June, 1842.]

LAST year, when the British Association at Plymouth was about to adjourn, I asked the President of the Statistical Section, Colonel Sykes, what Irish subject he would recommend me to inquire into as likely to be useful as well as interesting to the members of the Association at Manchester; and his reply must plead my excuse for again trespassing on the Section with matter that may not be altogether novel to many of its members (See Journal, vol. iv., p. 209.) A recommendation had been made that a small grant should be given to a committee of three Irish members, with a view to extend the inquiries respecting Loan Funds; but the Council of the Association did not make the grant, and being unable to incur the expense a second year, however willing I might have been to undertake the labour, the information which I have now to adduce, does not extend to all the subjects of my former inquiries; and indeed, I am indebted to the Secretary of the Loan Fund Board, Chas. A. J. Piesse, Esq., for the greater part of the information comprised in the following Tables.

No. 1, gives a view of the number of Loan Funds in each county in Ireland, with a summary of the number in each province.

No. 2, gives the number of Loan Funds and *Monts de Piété*, added together, with the amount of their capital, their number of loans, and the circulation of money for the year 1841.

No. 3, shows a comparative view of the years 1840 and 1841, and the increased operations during the latter. A few observations may be useful on each of these Tables.

The value of the Loan Fund system in Ireland can only be estimated by those who are resident within the sphere of its operation, and take a part in its management; many, indeed, look on, while they can only see the evils which in some cases are unavoidable, while they are either wilfully or carelessly ignorant of the great benefit it confers upon every industrious person who is compelled to resort to the money-lender for occasional aid in times of difficulty or want. The gradual increase of confidence in these institutions is remarkable, and appears by the extent of capital placed at the disposal of the directors or managers; amounting

to nearly 400,000*l.* And while we must at once see the good conferred upon the depositors of this large sum by affording them a safe custody for their savings, and a high interest of 5 or 6 per cent., yet it will be evident that the boon conferred upon the industrious labouring classes is infinitely greater, when we recollect that this capital is turned about four times every twelve months, and that above one million and a half has thus been circulated in poor unhappy Ireland in the year 1841. Add to this fact, that considerably more than 400,000 families are actively and laboriously occupied from week to week in earning the instalments which must be paid with punctuality, or else the borrower will, within three weeks be disqualified from again receiving a loan, and he and his sureties become subject to immediate legal proceedings and summary conviction.

Among the benefits to be enumerated may be classed the profits arising from the system, which, in 1841, amounted, after payment of interest to depositors, and all expenses of management, to 16,053*l.* 7*s.* 10*d.* These profits must, in conformity with the Acts of Parliament, be either expended in local charities, or reserved as a capital, which is *bonâ fide* the property of the poor, though in the hands of trustees for their benefit. Of this sum, above one-half, namely, 8,884*l.* 16*s.* 7*d.*, was actually expended in charity within the year. And here I may advert to a plan adopted this year, for the third time, by one of those institutions of which I am honorary secretary: 50*l.* has been granted to reduce the price of oatmeal to the poor, so that instead of paying 2*s.* 10*d.* or 3*s.* for a score of oatmeal (20 lbs. weight), they receive a ticket from a director, and they procure that quantity for 2*s.*, which is about one-third less than market price. This has the effect not only of relieving them so far, but of keeping the prices of provisions from rising higher, while there can be no objection on the ground of giving gratuitous relief, as they pay for the meal with their own earnings, though at a reduced price. I have written to suggest to the Loan Fund directors throughout Ireland, that it would be a most legitimate way of aiding the poor during the present high price of provisions. Another class who derive benefit from Loan Funds is their clerks, who not unfrequently are selected from persons very insufficiently paid in Ireland, I mean the village schoolmasters. Six hundred and fifty-three paid clerks are employed, receiving on an average 17*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.*; this remuneration would be wholly inadequate to carry on such a machinery, were it not that very efficient gratuitous aid is afforded by the resident gentry and clergy of various denominations. Above four millions of money has been lent within the last four years; while nearly 23,000*l.* have been dispensed through various charitable institutions, thus restoring to the same class from whence the profits have been derived a very large portion of the surplus.

The number of Loans in 1841 have exceeded those in 1840, by nearly 300,000*l.*, while 1,336*l.* more have been expended in charities. The proportionate increase of nett profits is not as large for this reason; all bad debts of the former years were in 1841 deducted from nett profits, so that though there has been a nett profit exceeding that of 1840, it is less than it would have been, had each year borne its own legitimate portion of losses. I am unable to give any particulars of 140 Loan Funds, which are in connexion with the London Directors of the Irish Reproductive Fund. These have not registered their rules, and therefore it is not possible at present to ascertain their operations under any head.

No. 1.—Number and Progress of the Loan Funds

A		B		C		D		E	
1841.		Counties.	Number of Loan Funds.	Amount of Capital, 1841.		Amount Circulated, 1841.		Number of Loans issued in 1841.	
				£.		£.			
1	Ulster.	1 Antrim	6	21,743		84,908		21,096	
2		2 Armagh	6	18,334		67,494		16,799	
3		3 Cavan	11	18,681		82,697		22,277	
4		4 Donegal	11	13,893		55,669		18,863	
5		5 Down	8	13,076		42,505		8,287	
6		6 Fermanagh	8	10,748		43,020		11,978	
7		7 Londonderry	2	3,427		16,639		4,243	
8		8 Monaghan	13	17,080		73,297		19,233	
9		9 Tyrone	13	25,228		106,491		26,867	
		Total in Ulster	78	142,210		572,720		149,643	
10	Leinster.	1 Carlow	9	13,331		49,190		14,262	
11		2 Dublin	6	6,168		4,846		1,449	
12		3 Kildare	4	5,085		28,623		8,535	
13		4 Kilkenny	17	10,421		35,679		12,977	
14		5 King's County	8	7,165		27,695		11,514	
15		6 Longford	9	10,787		47,127		10,235	
16		7 Louth	4	3,975		15,895		5,997	
17		8 Meath	7	9,202		41,135		11,750	
18		9 Queen's County	8	13,914		60,965		19,448	
19		10 Westmeath	10	16,303		60,344		13,757	
20		11 Wicklow	10	14,250		54,066		12,828	
21		12 Wexford	11	22,255		87,300		19,622	
		Total in Leinster	103	132,856		512,865		142,434	
22	Munster.	1 Clare	3	3,680		10,714		5,655	
23		2 Cork	25	32,391		101,869		34,676	
24		3 Kerry	
25		4 Limerick	1	252		575		282	
26		5 Tipperary	21	22,298		91,904		34,245	
27		6 Waterford	10	13,463		57,175		13,907	
		Total in Munster	60	72,084		262,237		88,765	
28	Connaught.	1 Galway	6	2,862		10,432		5,436	
29		2 Leitrim	11	8,138		30,763		12,291	
30		3 Mayo	1	4,536		22,249		4,523	
31		4 Roscommon	7	6,668		24,883		7,321	
32		5 Sligo	2	730		2,449		890	
		Total in Connaught	27	22,934		90,776		30,461	
		Ulster	78	142,210		572,720		149,643	
		Leinster	103	132,856		512,865		142,434	
		Munster	60	72,084		262,237		88,765	
		Connaught	27	22,934		90,776		30,461	
		Total in Ireland	268	370,084		1,438,598		411,303	

of each County in Ireland in 1841.

F			G			H	I	K			L			M
Profit after Interest and Expense of Management.			Deficiency reported by thirty-five Loan Funds.			Number of Paid Officers.	Number of Depositors.	Interest paid Depositors.			Amount expended in Local Charities, 1841.			Total Loans in 1838, 1839, 1840, 1841.
£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.			£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	
1,078	13	7	16	297	1,003	9	11	400	2	6	40,922
567	8	4	24	159	794	14	10	212	12	3	51,820
845	6	6	6	16	8	26	160	931	13	8	701	18	5	80,912
627	18	5	5	4	11	28	232	621	19	2	360	10	7	60,364
332	11	5	38	19	8	20	151	747	16	11	272	1	11	22,721
460	0	10	203	13	10	25	128	568	14	9	385	9	3	39,229
302	4	2	12	2	7	3	36	145	16	11	50	0	0	9,369
494	13	3	7	19	10	35	155	886	17	0	253	15	3	63,913
1,027	13	7	36	210	1,297	18	1	604	13	4	73,763
5,736	10	1	274	17	6	213	1,528	6,999	1	3	3,241	3	6	443,016
598	10	5	369	2	11	33	348	581	6	10	187	6	3	38,215
156	8	6	6	6	9	4	59	18	13	3	9,638
437	0	9	20	50	378	19	2	172	13	1	24,049
411	17	1	35	1	7	31	152	378	2	5	177	12	0	35,302
203	6	1	361	8	2	18	105	303	9	10	21	5	6	43,187
479	1	2	14	1	11	25	84	564	8	11	625	12	9	27,937
143	5	7	7	28	173	10	9	124	5	7	11,519
496	17	8	17	150	458	6	8	289	9	7	25,755
898	19	10	110	3	11	23	104	756	1	0	120	3	7	58,592
723	10	9	43	2	3	25	266	828	9	11	439	11	11	52,648
823	2	3	49	1	7	25	256	665	2	0	924	3	2	50,735
1,419	14	5	28	222	869	7	7	980	19	9	57,524
6,791	14	6	988	9	1	256	1,824	5,975	18	4	4,063	3	2	435,101
23	7	8	64	17	2	6	51	162	10	11	30	0	0	7,693
1,253	2	7	14	15	9	39	461	1,342	17	3	1,309	7	8	91,178
..
4	16	1	1	6	3	12	5	282
900	7	3	23	7	3	42	280	908	0	10	155	10	0	76,929
700	12	8	23	143	624	1	7	27,134
2,882	6	3	103	0	2	111	941	3,041	3	0	1,494	17	8	203,216
57	4	5	10	42	90	4	10	15	0	0	10,443
149	18	6	23	19	2	40	62	408	0	1	56	14	2	64,476
279	0	0	6	63	247	5	4	11,607
152	17	8	9	9	9	16	63	358	15	11	10	14	6	45,558
3	16	5	1	6	27	13	9	3	3	7	890
642	17	0	33	8	11	73	235	1,131	19	11	85	12	3	132,974
736	10	1	274	17	6	213	1,528	6,999	1	3	3,241	3	6	443,016
791	14	6	988	9	1	256	1,824	5,975	18	4	4,063	3	2	435,101
882	6	3	103	0	2	111	941	3,041	3	0	1,494	17	8	203,216
642	17	0	33	8	11	73	235	1,131	19	11	85	12	3	132,974
953	7	10	1,399	15	8	653	4,528	17,148	2	6	8,884	16	7	1,213,307

No. 1.—Number and Progress of Loan Funds.—(Continued.)

A		N		O		P			
1841.	Counties.	Amount Lent in these four Years.	Nett Profits in these four Years.			Total Grants to Local Charities same Period.			
		£.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	
1	Ulster.	Antrim	162,690	1,575	5	1	540	2	6
2		Armagh	204,688	1,741	8	2	655	10	2
3		Cavan	290,190	3,842	10	7	2,120	11	3
4		Donegal	158,153	2,435	7	5	1,145	12	3
5		Down	120,114	1,291	9	10	631	8	0
6		Fermanagh	132,804	1,915	11	7	1,259	12	3
7		Londonderry	35,910	538	15	9	100	0	0
8		Monaghan	225,968	2,528	7	0	1,288	9	10
9		Tyrone	277,533	2,859	2	2	1,355	5	9
Total in Ulster.		1,608,050	18,727	17	6	9,096	12	0	
10	Leinster.	Carlow	116,419	1,694	7	4	967	12	9
11		Dublin	31,775	146	19	4	5	0	0
12		Kildare	69,134	1,052	16	2	453	3	0
13		Kilkenny	97,788	1,199	17	9	394	12	8
14		King's County	58,317	334	13	9	48	16	10
15		Longford	111,452	1,221	14	4	1,293	3	7
16		Louth	29,964	302	8	0	124	5	7
17		Meath	88,202	1,085	14	10	620	13	0
18		Queen's County	188,687	3,582	17	11	1,283	17	11
19		Westmeath	221,487	2,371	17	11	1,547	11	11
20		Wicklow	198,993	4,497	0	2	2,178	8	3
21		Wexford	284,187	4,095	13	0	2,361	10	3
Total in Leinster .		1,496,405	21,586	0	6	11,278	14	9	
22	Munster.	Clare	18,092	31	12	0	50	0	0
23		Cork	266,143	2,876	0	0	1,336	0	11
24		Kerry
25		Limerick	575	4	16	1
26		Tipperary	200,317	2,085	17	9	286	12	6
27		Waterford	102,746	1,456	15	1	397	0	10
Total in Munster .		587,873	6,455	0	11	2,069	14	3	
28	Connaught.	Galway	22,789	84	11	3	15	0	0
29		L Leitrim	159,693	1,438	15	8	311	7	4
30		Mayo	53,970	609	8	9
31		Rosecommon	160,875	988	13	6	135	19	9
32		Sligo	2,449	3	16	5	3	3	7
Total in Connaught		399,776	3,125	5	7	465	10	8	
Ulster		1,608,050	18,727	17	6	9,096	12	0	
Leinster		1,496,405	21,586	0	6	11,278	14	9	
Munster		587,873	6,455	0	11	2,069	14	3	
Connaught		399,776	3,125	5	7	465	10	8	
Total in Ireland .		4,092,104	49,894	4	6	22,909	11	8	

No. 2.—*Amount of Capital; Number of Loans and Pledges; and amount circulated by Loan Funds and Monts de Piété in Ireland, in 1841.*

		Capital.	Loans or Pledges.	Amount Circulated.
		£.		£.
Loan Funds	268	370,084	411,303	1,438,598
Monts de Piété	8	26,883	351,408	61,934
		396,967	762,711	1,500,532

In reference to the Table No. 2, I beg to observe, that although the Central Loan Fund Board have endeavoured to keep the accounts of Loan Funds and Monts de Piété distinct, so that each should support its own expense, I am of opinion they should be united wherever they exist in the same town or neighbourhood. The great founder of the Poor Man's Bank, established the Mont de Piété system of lending money and receiving deposits; those who borrowed gave either personal security or pledges, and when the former can be offered with safety, it is desirable that the latter should be dispensed with; and if the profits of a Loan Fund are partly expended in the establishment of a Mont de Piété, as is the case at Belfast, it is most legitimately used for the benefit of the poorer classes, who are to a certain extent relieved thereby from the evils of the Irish system of pawnbroking, which I shall not further allude to, as I purpose giving a brief statistical account of eight Monts de Piété now at work in Ireland, and a full detail of that established at Portadown, which I conceive to be a model for all similar institutions, though it is on the smallest scale.

The last Table which I have to present is the following:—

No. 3.—*Comparative view of Total Operations in 1840 and 1841.*

	Capital.	Loans.	Amount Circulated.	Nett Profits.	Expended in Local Charity.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Loan Funds and } 1841	396,967	762,711	1,500,532	16,053	8,884 .
Monts de Piété. } 1840	195,339	464,171	1,165,574	15,846	7,548
Increase in 1841 .	201,628	298,540	334,958	207	1,336

This Table exhibits the increase of operations within the last year above 200,000*l.* more has been added to the capital which has more than doubled in amount.

A gradual improvement in the management of Loan Funds is already evident from the very active measures adopted by Mr. Piesse, secretary to the Loan Fund Board. He has made a tour of inspection through such districts as appeared from his correspondents most to require it, and purposes completing the tour during the present year. Of the necessity of this measure, there are two most striking instances on record. Mr. Piesse's report states, "I found the treasurer in the act of serving a customer with a glass of whiskey, his shop being that of a common huckster. On requiring to be shewn the office and books of the

Compsey Loan Fund, I was conducted through a dirty kitchen, to a dirtier stable, in one corner of which was placed a desk, and two or three greasy books. It was with great difficulty I elicited from them that 700*l.* formed the capital of the society, of which the actual manager was clerk, treasurer, secretary, and committee; how he managed to fill this plurality of offices even to his own satisfaction puzzled me, nevertheless, he found the trade a prosperous one. I proceeded to the house of another spirit dealer in the same village, who, like his neighbour, was in the act of serving some men with whiskey. The appearance of his establishment and of himself betokened anything but respectability. As this person had kept no books, I could not arrive at what sum he had really circulated, but learned that he had used about 360*l.*, which would give an annual circulation of 1,200*l.* This Loan Fund, in consequence of the inspection, has been since wound up, and of course ceases to issue loans."

Several valuable institutions have arisen in consequence of the means afforded by the profits arising from Loan Funds. At Tyrrell's Pass, the Rev. Mr. Eames has afforded the most extensive and valuable aid to farmers by supplying seeds and also an agriculturist to instruct them in an improved system of farming, an infant school, straw plaiting school, and a meal store. At Moate, the Newtown Barn Agricultural school has been established under the superintendence and through the active exertions of Dr. Edward Bewley, where there are at present 25 boys under instruction. One-half of the school-boys are employed in farming operations in the forenoon while the others are engaged in the school-room; in the afternoon, those who have been at school go to the farm: on every alternate day, they change, so that those who farm on Monday in the forenoon are similarly occupied on Tuesday in the afternoon. These lads as they grow up, it is hoped, will become valuable agriculturists, after having received such practical instruction as is described in the Report. At Portadown, a fever hospital is about to be erected, for which purpose the Mont de Piété has presented 300*l.* from its profits to the Committee of the Fever Hospital.

I forbear entering more minutely into details connected with the working of the Loan Fund system, but should this paper appear hereafter in print, I shall be glad to answer any letters of inquiry which it may suggest, if they be addressed to me by post at Tandragee.

On the Self-supporting Reading, Writing, and Agricultural School, at Wallingdon, in Sussex. By MRS. DAVIES GILBERT.

[*Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association, at Manchester, 23rd June, 1842.*]

THIS paper was in continuation of the one communicated to this section at its last meeting, and showed the success of an experiment in fitting the children of an agricultural population for superior farm service, or for the cultivation of small allotments by an agricultural school. The master of this school is paid by the produce of five acres of land on the south side of the South Downs, cultivated by the labour of his pupils, 20 in number, who work for three hours each day in the afternoon, after instruction for three hours in the morning in reading, writing, and accounts, the church catechism, collects, and psalmody, on the national plan, under the approbation of the Vicar. He receives 1*d.* per week from each boy, but pays 3*l.* per acre for his land, and 10*l.* per annum for his house; making a total rent of 25*l.* The most peculiar features of his spade husbandry, are, stall feeding of the cows on straw, turnips, and mangel wurzel, and the use of the liquid manures from the cows and pigs, by which means he gets a profit remunerating his labour both as schoolmaster and cultivator. Indeed, the labour of 12 boys, of an average age of eight years, will repay the master by their three hours' labour in the afternoon for his three hours' instruction in the forenoon; and the school keeps up its numbers, because it is his interest to teach so well as to have many willing hands to work for him.

Mrs. Davies Gilbert has likewise made an extensive trial of the allotment system, under which her tenants have obtained 40 bushels of wheat per acre, and paid her double the rents of her great tenants; "weeds paying no rent." From upwards of 400 tenants the rent had been received for 11 years without one penny of deficiency; and the price of potatoes in the neighbourhood has been greatly reduced by the produce of their cultivation. These tenants are bound not to sell hay, straw, and manure; and not to grow two straw seed-bearing crops, without an intervening root or green crop for the cattle; and they are recommended not to grow any hay whatever, but to stall-feed their cattle in winter on straw, roots, and green crops.

On the Destitution and Mortality in some of the Large Towns in Scotland. By W. P. ALISON, M.D.

[*Read before the Statistical Section of the British Association, at Manchester, 28th June, 1842.*]

DR. ALISON referred, in confirmation of his former statements on this head (see vol. iv. p. 288), first, to the result of an inquiry into the number and condition of the destitute poor in Edinburgh, undertaken in the early part of last winter by a committee appointed to distribute a charitable fund, raised by subscription on the birth of the Prince of Wales, and by whom domiciliary visits were made, and uniform reports presented from all parts of the town. From these it appeared that 21,620 persons, in a population of 137,200 (excluding the garrison of the castle), were at that time in a state of utter destitution, and were recommended for immediate wholly gratuitous relief, besides nearly 5,000

more, who, not being so miserably destitute, were recommended for relief in the way of provisions and fuel at a reduced price. To the 21,600 are to be added the inhabitants of three workhouses and of the House of Refuge, making a total of above 23,000 persons, out of 137,200, or 16·8 per cent. of the population, who, during at least a part of the year "of necessity must live by alms." Of this number, not above 7,000 are admitted as paupers to legal relief; so that 16,000, or 11·6 of the population, are, during part of the year, destitute from disability or want of employment, and have no lawful means of subsistence. The *pauperism* of England, of which so much has been said, extends in general to about 9 per cent. of the population; and most of the paupers are supported in comfort, and much care taken of their religious and moral instruction; but it appears from these statements, that the *destitution* of Edinburgh extends to nearly twice that proportion of the people; and, although Dr. Alison admitted that very few of them die of actual starvation, he asserted that many of them die of diseases partly caused by want of sufficient nourishment and clothing; that they are generally dependent on one form or another of mendicity; that the supply both of their bodily and spiritual wants is very irregular and precarious; and that they are in a great measure kept alive by the assistance given them by the working classes, even by the lowest and poorest of that description. Thus, he maintained, that the burden of their subsistence, although not allowed to press, as it would do in England, on the *capital* and *property* of the country, presses on the *industry* of the country, where its operation is both more injurious and more unjust. In regard to the effects of the Scotch system of management of the poor on the mortality of the great towns, he said that this could be best judged of in years of epidemics, because great part of the effect of bad management of the poor is, to render them peculiarly liable to suffer from such visitations. Although several extensive epidemics had occurred, since the English Registration Act came into force, in the English great towns, he could not find that the annual mortality in any of them had ever exceeded 1 in 30; but it had been fully ascertained that in Glasgow the mortality had reached this amount on an average of five years; and that in 1837 it had been 1 in 24, exceeding that recorded in any year in Liverpool (the most unhealthy town in England by reason of its number of poor Irish) by 25 per cent. He admitted that in the statements which he had formerly laid before the Statistical Society in London, as to the mortality at Edinburgh and Dundee, there had been an error from want of the proper deduction for still-born children, which had been returned among the deaths in the Scotch registers, and not in the English; but after making that deduction, the mortality at Dundee in 1836 (the worst year of epidemic fever there), appeared to be 1 in 30·1, equal to the highest recorded at Liverpool, which is a town nearly four times larger; and the mortality in Edinburgh in 1837 appeared to be 1 in 27·4, exceeding the highest recorded in Liverpool by nearly 10 per cent., and the highest recorded in London by 19 per cent. (viz., as 27·4 to 32·8). In regard to the greater liability of the Scotch towns to suffer from contagious fever, he stated that while the highest mortality from that cause, recorded in England, was 7·7 per cent. of the whole mortality, and that only in London and Manchester, and only for one year, the general proportion being about 4 per

cent., it appeared from various documents obtained by Mr. Watt, that in Glasgow, in 1837, it was above 20 per cent.; in Dundee, in 1836, 15 per cent.; in Glasgow, on an average of the last five years, 13·8 per cent.; in Edinburgh, for the last three years, 9·2 per cent.; in Dundee, for the last three years, 8·4 per cent., (the year of the greatest epidemic not being included in the case of either of the two last towns); in Aberdeen, for the last five years, 14·2 per cent.; and during last year in Edinburgh, 10·27 per cent. of the whole mortality. Even in Perth, for five years, it was 7·4 per cent. This evidence of the habitually greater extension of fever he considered of peculiar importance, *first*, because he had formerly given reasons for thinking the extension of fever in a great town more frequently dependent, directly or indirectly, on destitution than on any other cause; and *secondly*, because the mortality of fever falls heavier than that of any other disease on the most valuable lives in a community, especially on the heads of families. He then referred in proof of the connexion of those facts as to mortality with destitution, to the report of Villermé, on an elaborate inquiry into the comparative mortality of the twelve arrondissements of Paris, contained in the Archives de Médecine for 1825. It there appeared, that these districts of that city followed, with very slight variation, the same order as to mortality for five years together, the extremities of the scale being 1 in 45 for the first arrondissement, and 1 in 24 for the twelfth, and the mean mortality of Paris being 1 in 32·4;—that this order had no connexion with the vicinity of the districts to the river, or their distance from it,—nor with the degree of elevation of the ground,—nor with the nature of the soil, nor with the neighbourhood to, or distance from, the fetid marshes of Montfaucon,—nor with the purity or impurity of the water drank,—nor with the degree of density of the population, whether estimated by the proportion of inhabited houses to the whole extent of the districts, or by the proportion of the number of inhabitants to the space occupied by the buildings. By the true method of induction or exclusion it was proved, that none of these conditions determined the greater or less mortality of the different districts. But when the districts were compared with one another, according to the number of their *pauvres*, ascertained by the proportion of the inhabitants paying no taxes on account of their poverty, they were found to arrange themselves, almost precisely, in the same order in which they stood as to the degree of mortality, the three first arrondissements occupying the lowest place, and the eighth, ninth, and twelfth the highest place, in both scales. These observations, extending to nearly 800,000 people, and to five years, appear sufficient to prove, that the privations or comfort of the inhabitants are the main causes by which the greater or less mortality of the different parts of a great town, or of different great towns, are determined; and when these are borne in mind, the greater mortality (especially from fever) in the great towns of Scotland, will appear distinctly to confirm the conclusion to which Dr. Alison had arrived from other facts, that the provisions against destitution there, whether directed to its prevention or direct relief, are much less effective than in England. He fully admitted that various causes affect the lives and comfort, and even the degree of destitution of the lower orders, besides the kind of provision made against that destitution by the higher orders; that much suffering among them may be prevented by correcting intemperance,—much by religious and moral education,—

much by draining and ventilation, and other physical comforts. All these assertions are true, but they are not the whole truth. When all means of *prevention* are employed, we are still assured, by universal experience, by study of the physical and moral constitution of man, and by the warnings of revelation, that "the poor shall never cease out of the land," and that "the greatest evil of the poor will be their poverty;" much suffering will still remain, which we cannot prevent, and which it is our duty to *relieve*. He added, with equal confidence, that this relief is much more surely and effectually given in England than in Scotland; and that precautions and securities are known, by the prudent application of which, the regular and systematic relief of suffering may be prevented from having any effect in ultimately extending or perpetuating it; and on the contrary, may be confidently expected to act as an antidote to suffering in future generations, as well as a remedy for it in the present. He stated, in conclusion, that he had avoided any allusion to the inadequacy of the allowances granted to those destitute persons who are admitted as paupers in Scotland, or to the effects of such inadequate relief in the production of crime; but a striking illustration of both had been just put into his hands, and rested on the authority of Mr. D. M'Laren, of Edinburgh, and Mr. Smith, governor of the jail there. This was a case of five children of one family, who were in that jail at one time,—two under sentence of transportation for theft. It appeared that the father had deserted his wife with six children under twelve, one just born, in 1832, and had not been heard of since; that they had been allowed 2s. 6d. a week by the parish, which allowance had been afterwards reduced to 2s., (whereas in Manchester they would have had from 6s. to 7s. a week); that they had no other resource, and had been obliged to beg, and received hardly any education; and it was the conviction of those who had examined the case, that the children had been led to the commission of crime simply by the temptation to which they had been exposed by the mode of life which had become inevitable to them, in consequence of this inadequate allowance.

On Accidents in Coal Mines in Belgium and the Provident Institutions attached to the Mines. Abstracted from the Report of the Minister of Public Works to the King of Belgium, On the Provident Institutions of the Working Miners, by C. R. WELD, Esq.

[Read before the Statistical Society of London, 16th May, 1842.]

THE coal mines in Belgium, previous to 1790, were worked upon a small scale, as compared to the extensive operations at present carried on. The opening of new roads and canals at the commencement of the present century led to a great increase in the demand for coals, and many new pits were opened to meet the additional consumption. The number of miners increased proportionally, and the frequency of accidents attended with loss of life, and serious injury, led to the establishment of provident institutions for the relief of unfortunate miners, their widows and children.

From 1821 to 1840 inclusive, the following accidents occurred in the coal mines of Belgium.

Division of the Mines.	No. of Accidents.	No. of Workmen.		
		Killed.	Wounded.	Total.
1st Division. Province of Hainaut	693	878	440	1,318
2d Division. Province of Namur with Lux- embourg	80	62	30	92
3d Division. Province of Liege	579	770	412	1,182
Total	1,352	1,710	882	2,592

Explosions arising from the combustion of carburetted hydrogen gas, are the accidents if not the most frequent, at least the most fatal. The following is a table of accidents of this description from 1821 to 1840.

Division of the Mines.	No. of Accidents.	No. of Workmen.		
		Killed.	Wounded.	Total.
1st Division. Province of Hainaut	44	144	152	296
2d Division. Province of Namur with Lux- embourg	2	1	3	4
3d Division. Province of Liege	58	293	225	518
Total	104	438	380	818

Thus, during these 20 years 1,352 serious accidents occurred : 2,592 individuals were either killed or severely wounded, which is equal to 129 annually, in a population amounting during these 20 years, to about 28,000 : 818 were killed by explosions of hydrogen gas. The 1,710 workmen who perished had, however, wives and children left destitute ; and calculating these at four times the number of those who were killed, it appears that 6,840 individuals suffered from misfortunes arising from working the mines.

It will be interesting to compare these data with the results of the registration of colliery accidents at Oldham in 1840-41, read at a former meeting of the Society by Mr. Fletcher (See p. 222) ; and for the like purposes of comparison we may be permitted here to introduce the results of an abstract of the accidents designated as "serious" which occurred in the coal pits of the Bridgewater Trust, in the county of Lancaster, from March, 1838, to March, 1841, a copy of the register of which will be found in the Report of Mr. Kennedy to the Children's Employment Commissioners.

Occupations of the Persons Injured.

Occupations.	Adults.	Young Persons.	Children.	Total.
Engineers	3	3
Inspector	1	1
Driver	1	1
Hookers on	1	1	..	2
Boatman	1	1
Coal Getters	54	2	..	56
Drawers	20	17	37
Total	61	23	17	101

Nature of Accident to the several Sufferers.

Nature of Accident.	Adults..	Young Persons.	Children.	Total.
From falls of stone or coal	18	9	6	33
From the waggons by crushing . . .	1	1	1	3
From explosion of fire-damp	26	11	5	42
From falling down ladder or pit shaft .	8	..	2	10
From explosion of gunpowder	3	3
Drowned	1	1
Suffocated.	1	1
Hurt by engine	3	3
Falling out of bucket.	2	3	5
Total	61	23	17	101

Character of Injury sustained by the several Sufferers.

Injury.	Adults.	Young Persons.	Children.	Total.
Deaths by crushing	3	4	2	9
" by explosions; firedamp	1	..	1
" " gunpowder	1	1
" by falling	5	2	2	9
" by drowning	1	1
" by suffocation	1	1
Injuries to the lower limbs by crushing	3	..	5	8
" to the upper limbs by crushing	3	3	3	9
" to the body by crushing	10	10
" to the head by crushing	3	..	3
" by materials falling	8	8
" by explosion, fire-damp	24	10	5	39
" " gunpowder	2	2
Total	61	23	17	101

Domestic Circumstances of the Sufferers.

Unmarried.	Married.	Children of the Married.							
		Under 1 Month.	1 Month to 2 Months.	2 Months to 6 Months.	6 Months to 1 Year.	1 Year to 5 Years.	5 Years to 10 Years.	10 Years to 20 Years.	Total.
59	42	1	2	14	9	29	33	21	109

Weekly Amount of Wages which the Sufferers were earning.

Not exceeding 3s.	4
Exceeding 3s. and not exceeding 5s. . . .	8
" 5s. " 7s.	8
" 7s. " 10s.	6
" 10s. " 12s.	12
" 12s. " 15s.	39
" 15s. " 20s.	18
" 20s. " 25s.	1
Not stated	5

Total 101

Length of Time from Work when not Killed, in the Instances Under-stated.

Under 1 week	1
1 week and not exceeding 5 weeks	43
5 " " "	10 . . 17
10 " " "	15 . . 5
15 " " "	20 . . 3
20 " " "	50 . . 1
50 " " "	66 . . 2
	<hr/> 72

Reverting to the endeavours made in Belgium to provide against the distressing results of such casualties, we learn from the Report of the Minister, that the provinces of Liege and Namur, (the fund of the province of Namur is common to that of Luxembourg) have been endowed with provident institutions, by decrees of the king of Belgium, dated 24th June, and 1st December, 1839; and that the districts of Mons and Charleroy have had the statutes of their institutions sanctioned by royal decree dated the 30th and 31st December, 1840. Finally, a recent royal decree of the 30th September 1840, has approved the statutes of the institution of Hainaut.

The organisation of the provident institutions for miners is similar in the five divisions of the coal fields. The statutes have been approved by the king; the governors of the provinces are *ex-officio* presidents (at Charleroy the commissioner of the district); and the chief engineer, or his delegate, constitutes by law part of the commission. The commissions are composed of mining proprietors and master workmen, and these draw up an annual report of their administration, which is addressed to the governor of the province, and the central administration of mines.

The amount of pensions is not fixed, but varies according to the necessities of the individuals to be relieved. It has been thought advisable not to make any laws with reference to this: widows of labourers who have lost their lives by accidents, the father and mother who have been supported by them, receive a life pension, as also workmen who have been maimed and are incapacitated from working by accidents; and orphans receive assistance until they attain an age at which they may earn a subsistence.

Independent of this assistance, which is called ordinary, the administrative commissions are authorised to distribute extraordinary assistance to the parents of sufferers having no claim to a pension when they are in want, as well as to old and infirm workmen and maimed labourers, though not wholly incapable of working.

In connexion with the ordinary funds, the laws require that each firm should have a private fund for assistance. Pensions are granted out of the ordinary funds, in cases of serious accidents occasioning death, or incapacity to labour, but the private funds provide for the wants of workmen wounded or merely unwell. The association confines itself therefore to providing for the most serious cases; its operation commences when the resources of each single establishment are liable to be too much affected; it is in fact the insufficiency of the funds of the latter in cases of serious accidents, which led to the establishment and maintenance of the general associations. The firms of Liege and Namur

have subscribed to these for five years, and those of Hainaut for ten years. Everything tends to the belief that time will consolidate these useful institutions.

The funds of these societies are composed of:—

1. A per centage from the wages of the workmen.
2. Subscriptions from the companies.
3. Grants and subsidies from government.
4. Donations and legacies from private individuals.

The workmen contribute one half per cent. of their wages, and the companies supply an amount equal to that made up by their workmen.

In 1840 and 1841 the legislature voted grants in favour of the provident institutions for miners. These grants were apportioned as follows:

Institutions.	Years	
	1840.	1841.
Province of Hainaut { District of Mons . . .	Francs. 15,000	Francs. 13,500
	,, Charleroy . . .	8,500
	Central Coal Field . . .	5,000
Province of Namur with Luxembourg	5,000	4,000
Province of Liege	12,000	11,000
Total.	42,000	42,000
or £1,750.		

Besides the foregoing, the Liege Institution enjoys an income of 2,227 francs from France. The provincial council of Hainaut has voted for two consecutive years 6,000 francs in favour of the institutions established in that province. Lastly, three establishments, the General Society for Encouraging National Industry, the Society of United Capitalists, and the Commercial Society of Brussels, have granted an annual income to the institution in the district of Mons, of 5,000 francs at least, for the special object of educating the children of the labourers.

Independent of the assistance afforded by the institutions, the administrative commissions are empowered to grant sums out of the reserved funds for the education of the children of associated workmen. Thus, in providing for the moral wants of the rising generation, these funds contribute to ameliorate the condition of the future miner.

The Belgian companies have given a proof of their humanity and wisdom by subscribing as much to these institutions as is paid by the workmen. It is to be remarked that the association is organized through the masters, and does not exist directly among the workmen. The grants voted by the legislature have inclined undecided companies in favour of the association; and rather than be exposed, by remaining isolated, to all the consequences resulting from accidents, they are interested to take a part in the association. At present, the majority of companies working the mines have joined these institutions. The institutions of Mons and Charleroy have not been a year established, and that of the central coal field dates from 1st October, 1841, yet the following table shows how generally these provident institutions are appreciated.

Divisions of Mines.	No. of Firms.		No. of Workmen.		Total.	
	Associated.	Not Associated.	Associated.	Not Associated.	Firms.	Workmen.
1st Division. (District of Mons)	36	16	12,118	2,502	52	14,620
Province of (District of Charleroy)	42	29	6,360	993	71	7,353
Hainaut . (Central Coal Field)	12	..	3,662	..	12	3,662
2d Division. Province of Namur } with Luxembourg }	33	27	878	997	60	1,865
3d Division. Province of Liege	63	46	8,389	2,613	109	11,002
Total	186	118	31,407	7,095	304	38,502

Thus, among 304 companies, 186 of the most important support these institutions, and of 38,502 miners 31,407 or 81½ per cent. are employed by companies in connexion with them. The legislative grants have tended to their success, for however extensive may be their resources, they are not in a situation to dispense with legislative assistance. The claims upon the institutions are very heavy. To the pensions awarded during the first year must be added all those which may be granted during the following years (at least for fifteen), before an approximation to the amount of these charges can be obtained; for the pensions awarded during the first year will probably have dropped off at the termination of the period named, and subsequently the pensions will be more uniform in their total amount. In September, 1841, the institution of the district of Mons (established in February of the same year), had already granted assistance to the amount of 15,235 francs; the institution in the district of Charleroy, established at the same period, expended 12,630½ francs; and the institution of Liege, which dates from July the 1st, 1839, distributes 15,000 francs annually.

These associations are so slightly established as yet, that it is thought desirable to strengthen them by assistance from the state; but it must be remembered that they aid the cause of morality at the same time that they relieve pecuniary distress. The following abstract of a royal decree of 1841 gives a precise description of the resources, constitution, purposes, and procedure of these institutions, which, however remotely applicable to the circumstances of English mining labourers, will be regarded with interest at a time when their condition is exciting so much attention.

By a Royal Decree dated 30th Sept., 1841, the following Statutes of the Provident Institution for Hainaut were approved of:—

CHAP. I.

Art. 1. A Provident Institution is established at Fayt-lez-Seneffe, in the district of Charleroy, province of Hainaut, for workmen employed in the mines or in other branches of industry dependent upon them.

Art. 2. Ten enumerated firms are enrolled in this association, and the proprietors subscribe to these statutes for a term of 10 years. Any other firms working mines in the same district will be admitted to participate

in the benefits of the Provident Institution on conforming to the stipulated conditions.

Art. 3. The funds of the institution are composed of—

1. A per centage of the workmen's wages.
2. Grants from the companies.
3. Grants from Government.
4. Private donations and legacies.

Art. 4. Each associated firm contributes 1 per cent. annually of the amount paid to their workmen.

Half of this sum is derived from a deduction from the wages, and half from the companies.

Art. 5. In order to meet expenses arising from extraordinary accidents, 10 per cent. is laid apart as a reserve fund.

This fund is increased yearly by half of the income which exceeds the expenditure.

The reserve fund is only drawn upon when two-thirds of the administrative commission pass a resolution to that effect.

Art. 6. Each associated firm keeps a private fund for the relief of wounded workmen.

The associated firms undertake to establish or keep up a private fund.

They settle the amount to be contributed to this fund by their workmen.

CHAP. II.

Art. 7. A Commission of 10 members is appointed to manage the institution.

Art. 8. The governor of the province, and the chief mining engineer, or an engineer appointed by him, are legally entitled to be members of the Commission.

The governor is the president. He can nominate a vice-president to take his place.

Art. 9. Eight members, of whom five are chosen by companies and three by master workmen, are elected by the associated companies.

These members remain four years in office. One-fourth of the Commission is renewed yearly, and the new members are elected by ballot.

Art. 10. The Commission nominates from its own body a vice president, secretary, and treasurer.

Five members form a quorum for deliberation, excepting in the case of Art. 5.

Art. 11. The administrative commission executes the necessary regulations relating to these statutes.

Art. 12. A Report of its operations is published in the first three months of each year. A table showing the receipts and expenditure is sent in by each associated firm in the first month of each year.

Art. 13. An abstract of their receipts and expenditure, with the statement alluded to in the first section of Art. 12, are transmitted to the central administration of the mines of the kingdom, and to the governor of the province.

Art. 14. No change can be made in the payments out of the common fund without an express resolution from the administrative commission, excepting in cases of death.

CHAP. III.

Art. 15. Assistance granted out of the common fund is either ordinary or extraordinary.

Art. 16. Ordinary assistance consists of temporary or life pensions granted by the Commission.

Art. 17. The administrative commission regulates the amount of temporary or life pensions according to circumstances.

Art. 18. A life pension is granted—

1. To every labourer incapable of working in consequence of injuries received while working either under or over ground.
2. To the widows of workmen who have lost their lives by accidents.
3. To the father and mother, grandfather and grandmother, of workmen accidentally killed, when the former are incapable of providing for themselves, and were supported by the deceased.
4. To workmen who, having been employed for at least 30 years by associated firms, are unable from old age and infirmity to gain their living.

Art. 19. A temporary pension is granted—

1. To the infants of widows whose husbands have been accidentally killed when working for companies.
2. To orphans who have lost their parents by accidents under similar circumstances.
3. To the young brothers and sisters of workmen who have been killed by accidents while working in mines, when they are in distress, and the deceased was their principal support.

Art. 20. All workmen belonging to an associated firm or other persons before described are entitled to assistance, without any distinction, if they meet with an accident within or without a mine. At the same time, those workmen alone are entitled to assistance who are regularly employed and pay their quota to the fund.

Art. 21. All widows remarrying, or living publicly as mistresses, cease to have any claim to a pension.

Art. 22. All pensioners condemned to any corporal or degrading punishment for offences forfeit their pension.

Those condemned to more than six months' imprisonment may also be deprived of their pensions.

Art. 23. When death or one of the preceding circumstances causes the pension of a widow leaving children to become extinct, assistance may be increased in favour of the children, according to circumstances.

Art. 24. The father and mother, the wife and children, and brothers and sisters of the deceased, are alone entitled to a pension.

Art. 25. No pension is granted to a workman who has mutilated himself voluntarily, or in case of wounds received through great imprudence; nor have the parents, widow, children, brothers, or sisters of a workman who has committed suicide a claim to a pension, or in case of death arising from great imprudence.

Art. 26. The pensions date from the time they are granted by the administrative commission.

In the interval between the accident and the granting of the pension, all assistance rendered to the wounded workman, his widow or family, is

defrayed out of the private funds; or in cases of the insufficiency of the latter, by the firms individually.

Such assistance not to exceed six weeks.

Art. 27. Extraordinary assistance of the kind specified in Art. 15 is granted by the administrative commission, as it sees fit, to the relations of deceased persons having no claim to a pension; to workmen who are severely injured, but not incapable of working; or to old and infirm workmen not included in the 4th section of Art. 18.

In any case, the funds of the institution cannot be appropriated to workmen in the employment of firms not associated.

Art. 28. The proprietors of associated establishments are consulted and give their advice upon all demands for pensions or extraordinary assistance addressed to the administrative commission of the institution by workmen or their families.

Art. 29. They transmit every three months to the administrative commission of the institution the amount of the sums due to it.

Art. 30. The pensions are paid fortnightly, and, in every possible case, at the mines where the workman or his family are located.

Art. 31. When the funds of the institution permit, the administrative commission appropriates a portion to the building of schools in the vicinity of the principal mines, into which all the children of workmen employed by associated firms are admitted gratuitously.

CHAP. IV.

Art. 32. Before the publication of the documents alluded to in Art. 12, the administrative commission give annual notice to the general assembly of associated proprietors, who are convened for that purpose. At the same sitting, one-fourth of the members who retire from the commission are renewed.

Art. 33. Each firm has a vote at the general meeting.

Art. 34. No change can be made in these statutes without calling a special meeting of all the associated companies. This meeting is convened by notices sent to the various establishments, and an advertisement of the same is twice inserted in the provincial journals, by order of the administrative commission.

Any modifications must be adopted by three-fourths of the members present, and the latter must constitute the majority of the associated establishments.

Art. 35. These statutes, with any modifications which may be adopted, will be submitted for the Royal approbation.

The Institution is established this day, 30th Sept., 1841.

Notices of the Commerce of Russia. Abstracted from a paper by
A. SŁOWACZYŃSKI.

[Read before the Statistical Society of London, 21st March, 1842.]

THE want of protection and favour to commerce in Russia, together with the ignorance which there exists concerning the wants, manufactures, and commerce of other countries, constrains the native Russians, like the Jews in Poland, to petty trading in the towns or on the frontier;

leaving foreign merchants to come to their shores in search of what they may require. Next to the maritime commerce of Russia its overland trade with Asia challenges attention; its great mart being the celebrated annual fair of Nijni Novgorod. But it will be desirable first to describe in brief the commercial body of Russia. The following numerical statements are derived from the official publications of the government, but great allowances must be made for inaccuracies, and for exaggerations arising from double entries, especially in the accounts of the inland trade by canals.

It appears that the body of merchants comprised,—

In 1835.	In 1836.	
695	889	Merchants of the first guild.
1,547	1,874	Traders of the second ditto.
30,999	33,808	Ditto of the third ditto.
..	46	Foreign merchants established in Russia.
7,976	8,345	Warehousemen.
4,992	5,299	Peasants having liberty to trade.
46,209	50,261	{ Being the total number of persons devoted to commerce among a population of 56,000,000.

The merchants of the first guild declared, in 1839, to a capital of 44,550,000 paper roubles; the merchants of the second guild, to 37,480,000 roubles; those of the third, to 270,464,000 roubles; and the foreign merchants, to 2,300,000 roubles; making a total of 354,694,000 roubles.

This statement shows, however, only official amounts, guessed from the number of registered merchants, and in proportion to the tax which they pay into the Treasury: a merchant of the first guild may be considered accordingly as possessing a capital of 50,000 roubles; a merchant of the second 20,000; and a merchant of the third 8,000 roubles. These amounts will be found correct if multiplied by the number of merchants. The merchants, however, are taxed at fixed rates, without relation to the capital which they really possess. Foreign merchants always belong to the first guild, and pay taxes accordingly.

Each guild enjoys particular privileges. The first guild is composed of two classes. Merchants of the first class are permitted to engage in foreign commerce, to become bankers and contractors, and to be owners of ships; they are entitled to certain distinctions, such as appearing at court on grand occasions, wearing a sword, and having four horses to their carriages: they must, however, give precedence to nobles by birth, the military, and public functionaries. The rest of the merchants of the first guild are allowed only two horses to their carriage, and are not permitted to carry a sword or to appear at court; but they possess the other mercantile privileges of foreign commerce, banks, and contracts. Merchants of the second guild may engage in general commerce, and are restricted to the limits of the empire; but they may trade with foreigners in raw materials for manufacture. They are exempt from corporal punishment, except for high treason, and can purchase estates without serfs; being allowed also to have serfs in their manufactories, subject to an express condition, that they are to be always employed in the same manufactory, and not otherwise. Merchants of the third guild are at liberty to engage in retail trade throughout the country, and in wholesale within the limits

of their respective governments. They may be proprietors of taverns, weaving concerns, and barges; they may attend fairs and markets, contract for government works under 12,000 roubles, and rent farms of a like annual value. In other matters they are upon an equality with the generality of citizens, and are not always exempt from corporal punishment.

The following is the established tariff for the three guilds of native merchants :—

Taxes on each Merchant.	Guilds.		
	First.	Second.	Third.
	Paper Roubles.*	Paper Roubles.	Paper Roubles.
To the Imperial Treasury 4 per cent. on the capital for the two first guilds, and 2½ per cent. for the third	2,000	800	200
For the maintenance of roads and inland navigation	200	80	20
Provincial tax	125	50	20
Town ditto	125	50	20
Parish funds	375	150	60
Total per annum . .	2,825	1,130	320

Foreign merchants residing in Russia pay the taxes of the first guild, but are not considered members of it, unless naturalized by the Senate. It is absolutely necessary for them to be admitted to the first guild by letters patent, before they can become owners of any manufactory.

The value of the imports and exports of recent years is stated as follows :—

<i>Imports.</i>		<i>Exports.</i>	
Roubles.		Roubles.	
In 1834 . .	218,093,452	230,429,880
1835 . .	222,766,065	227,724,438
1836 . .	237,251,204	283,748,233
1837 . .	251,757,177	264,485,160
1838 . .	247,715,492	313,525,687
Total for five years	1,177,582,390		1,319,913,398
Per annum . .	235,516,478		263,982,679

The following statements show that the increase in the imports consists principally in articles of luxury, and especially in wine and spirituous liquors; and that St. Petersburg receives the largest proportion of the whole imports; being in great part luxuries for the capital, which pay for the raw produce exported from the provinces.

* The bank paper rouble of 100 kopeks, which is the ordinary integer of computation, and the one here used, unless otherwise specified, is worth about 1*l.* 10*s.* French, or 11*d.* English; the silver rouble of 360 kopeks being worth nearly 3*s.* 3*d.*

<i>Imports.</i>			
Articles.	Average from 1827 to 1832, as estimated by M. Schubert.	Average Quantities from 1828 to 1837.	Quantities Returned for 1838.
	Roubles.	Poods,*	
Unrefined Sugar	32,000,000	1,455,189	1,534,908
Coffee	5,000,000	125,101	101,901
Cotton, raw and spun	31,000,000	Raw 160,981 Spun 528,475	326,707 606,667
Cotton Fabrics	5,500,000	11,127,480	13,977,561
Linen Cloths	829,530	1,459,710
Colouring matters	20,000,000	Rou bles. 13,451,719	19,689,598
Raw and Spun Silk	3,500,000	Poods. 12,479	11,650
Silk Fabrics	9,000,000	Rou bles. 8,937,560	11,876,068
Woollen Cloths	7,500,000	8,758,360	8,822,432
Wine	11,000,000	14,190,283	18,569,140
Machines and utensils of all kinds	1,747,783	4,398,793
Tea	5,600,000
Dried Fruits	4,500,000
Tobacco	2,750,000
Lead	1,500,003
Gold and Silver, entered as imported goods	32,000,000	..	26,005,277
<i>Exports.</i>			
Hemp amounts to nearly one-third of the entire Exports; it is exported raw, spun, in cloths and cordage, oil and seed	80,000,000
Flax and Hemp-seed	13,500,000	Tchet werts.† 651,510	1,007,484
Hemp and Flax Oil	3,000,000	Poods. 330,790	92,094
Hemp in the rough	26,000,000	2,607,650	3,210,221
Flax	2,203,646	3,413,712
Cables and Cordages	3,000,000	306,922	269,745
Canvas for Sails	11,500,000	Pieces. 193,312	210,995
Tallow, doubled since 1805	40,500,000	Poods. 4,161,548	3,947,949
Corn and Flour	Rou bles. 33,876,310	53,048,374
Among other Exports the most important are—			
Skins	5,260,331	3,555,195
Leather	4,115,296	2,875,616
Iron	Poods. 1,424,152	1,159,089
Brass	203,973	1,159,633
Wool	202,025	363,219
Raw Silk	64,263	83,915
Wax	38,089	24,603
Gold and Silver money	5,930,700

* The pood contains 40 Russian pounds, and is equal to 36lb. 10z. 11dr. avoidupoise.

† The tchetwert is equal to nearly 6 bushels English (5·952), or three-fourths of a quarter; so that 100 tchetwerts make nearly 75 quarters.

The maritime commerce of Russia is concentrated in the Baltic ; and the city of St. Petersburg carries on a much larger trade than any other port. The port generally opens in May, and is closed in the middle of November. In 1840, 1,461 merchant vessels entered Cronstadt, its harbour, of which 675 were English, 270 German, 110 Russian, 89 Norwegian and Swedish, 83 Dutch, 75 Danish, 68 French, and 63 American. 1,445 vessels sailed the same year, 736 of which bore the English flag. In 1838, the imports were valued at 188,437,479 roubles; and the exports at 137,525,838 roubles.

Riga, the second port in the empire, exported, in 1837, to the value of 42,519,620 roubles, of which 24,374,982 were to England. Archangel, in the White Sea, has declined in importance; the number of vessels which entered it in the same year being only 373. Odessa, on the Black Sea, has risen rapidly into importance; being the centre of a coasting trade much more extensive than exists in the Baltic; its exports, in 1839, were valued at 23,000,000 roubles; and its imports at 11,000,000.

Inland, the merchants generally transport their goods by water, for it may be said that there are scarcely any other means in existence. The government publish, annually, tables of the inland navigation of the country, and of the value of the products thus conveyed. In 1837 the latter was estimated at 1,109,500,000 roubles, of which 149,000,000 roubles were destined for St. Petersburg, 23,000,000 for Moscow, 22,000,000 for Riga, and 11,000,000 for Archangel: 60,277 barks and rafts were employed: and 1,578 barks, and 778 rafts, containing merchandize valued at 16,378,720 roubles, wintered in the interior.

Nijni Novgorod, the seat of the fair which is the great mart for the central parts of Russia in Europe, and for the Asiatic trade, is 1,139 versts* from St. Petersburg, and 441 from Moscow.

It is difficult to conceive any scene more animated than its vast assembly from the different nations of western Europe, from the Frozen Ocean, from the frontiers of China, and from India, to the number of perhaps 600,000. The following is the statement recently circulated by authority respecting the fair of 1841. The day of commencement is the 29th of June, and the fair lasts until the end of the following month.

Asiatic products and merchandise are favoured beyond those of Europe by reduced or discriminating duties. The number of contracts entered into at the conclusion of each fair, in 1839, 1840, and 1841, for store-houses in the more preferable localities for the fair of the ensuing year, a portion of the rent of which, as the binding obligation, must be paid beforehand, was as follows:—

1839 . . .	27	1840 . . .	908	1841 . . .	958
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Total Value of Merchandise at the Fair in 1841.

		Silver Roubles.	Paper Roubles.
For sale		50,506,606	or 176,773,121
Sold		41,704,236	,, 145,964,826

	Silver Roubles.
Increase in 1841 over 1840	2,875,249

* The verst is about two-thirds of an English mile.

Value of Russian Merchandise at the Fair in 1841.

Articles.	For Sale.	Sold.
	Silver Roubles.	Silver Roubles.
Cottons	7,366,665	5,947,865
Woollens	3,448,275	2,620,175
Linens and hempen cloths	3,126,736	2,375,736
Silks	3,220,489	2,239,789
Furs	1,996,273	1,498,273
Hides, leather tanned and manufactured	1,043,583	876,083
Produce of mines and forges; iron, copper, hard- wares, jewellery, &c.	7,600,330	6,450,330
Porcelain, earthenware, glass, and mirrors	398,860	336,860
Dried fish, caviar, fish oil, and glue	513,778	473,278
Wheat and flour	2,850,750	1,645,750
Wines of Russian growth, brandy, hydromel, &c.	866,786	781,386
Sugar from the refiners of St. Petersburg and Archangel (137,000 poods), and other merchan- dise, such as wax candles, potash, soap, tobacco, paper, pens, &c.	4,730,148	4,516,748
Total Russian produce and manufactures	37,132,693	29,762,473

Silver Roubles.

Increase in sales of Russian merchandise in 1841 over 1840 . 2,479,968

Quantities and Value of Merchandise from China and other parts of Asia, at the Fair in 1841.

Articles.	Quantities and Value.		Total Value.
CHINA.			
Tea Chests	50,000	Silver Roubles. 7,107,500	Silver Roubles. 7,351,475
Ditto, pressed in boards, for the use of the nomade tribes of the South . . . }	5,500	231,825	
Other products, such as silks, cottons, dye stuffs, toys, &c. }	..	12,150	
Sold, Silver	Roubles	6,921,473	
BOKHARA.			
Raw cotton Poods	23,500	..	1,085,557
Cotton yarn ,,	39,600	..	
,, stuffs (called Bokhara pieces). }	146,000	..	
Shawls	121,400	
Turquoises	48,000	
All sold			
PERSIA, ARMENIA, GEORGIA.			
Raw silk, of different qualities Poods	1,975	180,812	709,687
Cotton yarn ,,	8,500	..	
Furs, silks, fruits, &c.	
Sold, Silver	Roubles	509,187	
Total			9,146,719
Sold			8,516,217

Quantities of tea before 1839, 38,000 chests—in 1839, 34,000 chests—1840, 50,800 chests.

Statement of the Value of European and Colonial Merchandise at the Fair in 1841.

Articles.	For Sale.	Sold.
	Silver Roubles.	Silver Roubles.
Woollens and Stuffs	256,455	212,605
Cottons	510,830	423,290
Linens, and Hempen goods	192,300	180,700
Silks	423,130	328,980
Coffee, 7,200 poods	100,800	
Divers Merchandise, Oils, Prints, Confi- } tures, &c.	491,600 }	392,390
Foreign Wines	786,529	662,029
Indigo, 9,180 poods	918,000	
Other Drugs	547,550 }	1,225,550
	4,227,194	3,425,544
European and Colonial Merchandise in 1840	Silver Roubles. 4,451,581	Silver Roubles. 3,648,081

*Educational Statistics, 1840-41. By SEYMOUR TREMENEERE,
Esq., F.S.S.*

THE Appendix, No. 2, attached to the recently published volume of the Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education, comprises the statistics of applications for aid from the Parliamentary grant, which have been considered and determined in the year 1840-41. This document is in a tabular form, but its materials have not been condensed so as to exhibit the results that may be deduced from them. This I have endeavoured to do with such portions as throw light on a few of the more prominent features of the subject.

The sum placed by Parliament at the disposal of the Committee of Council was 30,000*l*. This has given rise to 310 applications, the purport of which was, with but few exceptions, to obtain aid towards the erection of new school buildings, the total estimated cost of which appears to have amounted to 80,932*l*. 17*s*. This exhibits a proposed expenditure of 270 per cent. above the sum offered in aid of that purpose from the public funds; and it may be fairly inferred that a large proportion of this contemplated expenditure has been called into existence by the prospect of such aid.

The total number of children for which accommodation was to be provided in these new school buildings was 56,784, in 282 schools. In 28 cases (the difference between this last number and the total applications) the parties have not stated what number of children they proposed to accommodate. The total income upon which the promoters of these schools reckon for their support may be stated at about 18,250*l*, to be derived from annual subscriptions and donations, annual collections, endowments, school fees, and other sources. Of this sum, 13,420*l*. 8*s*. appears as the amount of revenue which the applicants themselves state they expect to obtain from the above sources. In the case of 68 applications, the expected income is either said to be uncertain, or no answer is given to the query. To these cases I have applied the medium estimate of 2*d*. per week per head for each child for which they propose to

find accommodation. This gives the sum of 4,830*l.*, and makes up the above-mentioned total of 18,250*l.*

A total income of 18,250*l.*, divided among 282 schools, gives an average of somewhat less than 65*l.* to each. Of the 214 in which the expected income is stated, that of 35 only is above 100*l.*; 16 are between 80*l.* and 100*l.*; 47 between 50*l.* and 80*l.*; and the remaining 116 are between 20*l.* and 50*l.*, with the exception of four cases, in which the income is estimated at from 8*l.* to 18*l.* The general result is, that in 47 schools the income is stated to be above 80*l.*, and in 163 below it. If all the above 282 were boys' schools only, the average income from which the usual current expenses are to be provided, as well as the salary of the master, must be considered as exceedingly restricted; but since many of them, as appears from the numbers they propose to accommodate, must be both boys' and girls' schools, and consequently requiring both a master and mistress, the sum to be divided between both, taken as an average, is manifestly far short of what would be desirable with a view to the welfare of these schools. It must be expected that in this, as in other occupations, the ability and the acquirements attracted towards it will be pretty nearly in proportion to the means of comfortable existence that it holds out. The very low rate of remuneration offered by the great majority of these schools may therefore be taken as an index, if not of the kind of qualifications with which their promoters may be considered as being content, yet at least of those which they can expect to find in the teachers they will be able to obtain, and to whom they will have to confide these important trusts.

In reference to this portion of the subject, I may avail myself of an extract from a letter from a gentleman connected with a large commercial firm in London. It tends to show, at least as regards large towns, the scale of income which would be likely to induce persons of the ability requisite to make good masters of elementary schools, voluntarily to dedicate their lives to a profession requiring much self-denial and considerable personal exertions. The passage is as follows:

"Any steady mechanic in our employment, of the class of engineer, millwright, coppersmith, cooper, &c., can earn 80*l.* a year; the skilful portion of them can earn much more: and I shall not expect to get the best class of young men to become schoolmasters, unless their income from their profession shall at least equal that of skilful mechanics."

In further illustration of this portion of the subject I may add, that of 35 boys' schools recently visited, in, or in the immediate vicinity of London, two of the masters had incomes amounting to 150*l.* per annum; six between 110*l.* and 100*l.*; eight between 100*l.* and 80*l.*: total, 17 whose incomes were above, and 18 whose incomes were below 80*l.*

As these schools have the advantage of being chiefly in the metropolis, they obtain support and assistance which raises the salaries of their masters above the usual average. It is therefore desirable, at a time when there seems to be a growing disposition to incur a liberal expenditure in school buildings, to direct especial attention to this point—namely, to the low degree of remuneration too generally thought sufficient for the masters of elementary schools. It must be evident that while this is the case, none but the most inadequate results can ensue. A class of masters for the schools of the working population, possessing the proper intellectual capabilities, calculated by manners and habits to improve those committed to their charge, and acquainted with the prin-

ciples and best methods of elementary instruction, of school discipline and management, can only be attracted into this branch of employment by liberal salaries and a due social consideration.

Of the sum entrusted to the Committee of Council during the last year, 27,655*l.* was assigned to the various applicants, and accepted by them, chiefly in aid of buildings which they proposed to erect. Of this sum, 150*l.* went to a Roman Catholic school; 1170*l.* to schools connected with the British and Foreign Society; 980*l.* to schools in Scotland; and 25,355*l.* to schools connected with the Established Church. The large proportion of the total sum assigned, which thus appears to have been placed at the disposal of the Church, is a proof of the exertions now in progress among her members in this direction, and of the large amount of local contributions (much more than double that of the sum assigned from the public grant), which have been called forth towards the erection of new buildings for school purposes.

Among the total number of applicants, 122, or upwards of one-third, stated that they had secured play-grounds adjoining the school buildings: a provision, the importance of which in aid of the moral discipline, as well as of the health and cheerfulness of the school, especially in large towns, is apparently beginning to be more generally recognized.

The only remaining point which these tables present, requiring notice in this place, is the tabular arrangement of the various classes of persons proposing themselves as trustees for these intended schools. In addition to the respective columns for the clergy, ministers, the gentry, professional men, merchants, and manufacturers, there appear three also for farmers, shopkeepers, and working men: and of these three last classes, 42 schools have trustees selected also from the first, in conjunction with individuals of the preceding classes; 24 from the second; and one only, a Scotch school, from the third. It is much to be desired that these indications of a disposition to extend through all the gradations of society the bonds of sympathy and co-operation, in a cause and at a period pre-eminently standing in need of both, may receive further encouragement; and that future statistical tables of the Committee of Council on Education may exhibit a larger and a gradually increasing proportion of working men, shopkeepers, and farmers, willing and capable of taking an efficient part in the important task of aiding to disseminate useful learning and religious education throughout the entire mass of her Majesty's faithful and loyal subjects.

MISCELLANEOUS.

BESIDES the Papers which are contained in the present Number of the Journal, there were read before the Statistical Section of the British Association at Manchester, one on the Statistics of Plymouth, by H. Woolcombe, Esq.; one on the Commerce of France, in 1840, by the Rev. Mr. Jones; a Report on the Vital Statistics of Manchester, by a Committee of the Statistical Society of Manchester; and a Report on the Vital Statistics of Five Towns in Scotland, by a Committee of the Statistical Section of the British Association. The first of these is almost exclusively of local interest; the second and third were presented to the Section in a printed form, and, being already published, require only a notice of their principal results, which will appear in the next Number of the Journal. The latter also demands a special

notice; but, being the Report of a Committee of the British Association, it will be published at length with the other Papers of that body.

The following Income-tax memoranda are derived from Willich's Income-tax Tables, with the approbation of their Author. Income taxes have been levied, since the commencement of the present century, by the following statutes and at the rates under-stated:—

Income Taxes.

Statutes.	Per Cent.	Schedules and Rates in the Pound.				
		A.	B.	C.	D.	E.
1803. 43 Geo. III., c. 122 . .	5	1s.	9d.	1s.	1s.	1s.
1805. 45 Geo. III., c. 15 . .	6½	One-fourth increase on the above.				
1806. 46 Geo. III., c. 65 . .	10	2s.	1s. 6d.	2s.	2s.	2s.
1842. 5 and 6 Vic., c. 35 . .	3	7d.	3½d.	7d.	7d.	7d.

It will be seen that the rates paid under schedule (B), which taxes the income of the farmers in proportion to their rent, was formerly three-fourths of the other rates, but is now only one-half, and for Scotland it is only 2½d. in the pound; while tenants paying less than 300l. a-year are wholly exempt.

Sources of Income formerly and now Assessed.

Schedules.	Sources of Income.	Amounts Assessed in 1814.	Sir R. Peel's Estimate, March 11, 1814.	
			Amounts Assessed.	Produce of Tax.
		£.	£.	£.
A.	Property derived from Land:			
1.	Rent of Land	39,400,000	39,400,000	..
2.	Rent of Houses	16,260,000	25,000,000	..
3.	Tithes	3,500,000	..
	Dividends of Railway Companies, Canals, and property of similar description . .	4,470,000	3,429,000	..
	Mines and Iron Works	1,500,000	..
A.	Total	60,130,000	72,829,000	1,600,000
B.	Rent of Land in respect of occupation . .	38,396,000	26,000,000	150,000
C.	Income derived from Public Funds and similar securities (sum on which Assessment made)	30,000,000	30,000,000	646,000
D.	Profits of Trades and Professions	38,310,000	56,000,000	1,220,000
E.	Income of Public Officers	11,744,000	7,000,000	155,000
	Total	178,580,000	191,829,000	3,771,000

N.B. From A, C, D, and E, one-fourth of the amounts to be deducted for exempt incomes under 150l. a-year.

Gross Amounts raised by Income and Property Tax in Great Britain.

At 5 per cent.	1804	£ 3,578,890	At 10 per cent.	1811	£13,707,218
Do.	1805	4,496,142	Do.	1812	13,628,454
6½ per cent.	1806	6,145,260	Do.	1813	14,889,445
10 per cent.	1807	10,131,344	Do.	1814	15,109,803
Do.	1808	11,398,135	Do.	1815	15,227,500
Do.	1809	12,386,913	Do.	1816	12,276,871
Do.	1810	13,492,215	N.B. The tax was repealed in 1816.		
Population of Great Britain in		1811	11,969,364
,,		1821	14,073,331
,,		1841	18,656,414

Under the former tax, incomes under 60*l.* a-year, derived from trades and professions, alone were exempt, though those between 60*l.* and 150*l.* were subjected to only a reduced scale of charge; the total amount upon which this was assessed being, in 1812, 13,136,014*l.*, in schedule (D), while the larger incomes in the same schedule, which are now also assessed, amounted to 21,247,621*l.*; making a total, in that schedule, of 34,383,635*l.* Funded property held by foreigners was formerly exempt, but is now charged.

Average Prices of Corn per Imperial Quarter in England and Wales, with the Rate of Duty on Foreign Wheat, during each week from the Commencement of the New Duties to the 24th September, 1842; also during each Month of the same period; and during the Quarters ended Midsummer and Michaelmas, 1842. (Continued from p. 231.)

Date.	Wheat.			Weekly Average.				
	Weekly Average.	Aggregate Average.	Duty on Foreign.	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Beans.	Peas.
Weeks ended 1842.	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
May 6 .	60 9	59 8	27 8 and then 13 0	27 4	19 9	32 4	31 8	30 7
13 .	59 10	60 0	12 0	26 3	19 6	31 4	31 9	31 3
20 .	60 9	60 5	12 0	26 0	19 5	32 6	31 8	31 4
27 .	61 11	60 9	12 0	26 0	19 7	33 8	32 1	31 0
June 3 .	63 7	61 3	11 0	26 6	19 7	33 7	32 6	32 6
10 .	64 1	61 9	11 0	26 9	20 7	31 9	33 2	32 7
17 .	63 10	62 3	10 0	26 10	21 6	36 10	33 9	32 7
25 .	64 0	63 0	9 0	27 7	21 8	31 7	34 5	33 3
July 2 .	64 3	63 7	9 0	27 7	22 4	32 3	34 9	35 6
9 .	64 10	64 1	8 0	27 6	22 3	29 5	35 2	34 1
16 .	65 8	64 5	8 0	28 0	22 0	38 7	34 10	35 5
23 .	65 4	64 7	8 0	27 11	21 6	36 5	35 2	34 1
30 .	63 9	64 7	8 0	28 0	21 5	34 9	31 7	33 11
Aug. 6 .	61 3	64 2	8 0	27 6	20 6	35 11	34 1	32 11
13 .	58 11	63 3	9 0	27 7	20 2	35 7	34 1	34 7
20 .	56 5	61 10	11 0	26 9	19 6	32 10	33 8	34 0
27 .	55 1	60 1	12 0	27 4	18 7	31 7	34 0	32 6
Sept. 3 .	53 3	58 1	14 0	27 2	18 10	31 5	33 1	32 6
10 .	51 7	56 0	16 0	27 2	18 6	29 4	33 6	33 6
17 .	52 10	54 7	18 0	27 2	17 9	29 10	32 11	32 11
24 .	54 1	53 10	18 0	27 10	18 5	29 11	33 3	33 4
Months:—								
May . .	60 10	26 5	19 7	32 6	31 10	31 0
June . .	63 11	26 11	20 10	33 2	33 5	32 9
July . .	64 9	27 10	21 11	34 3	34 11	34 9
August . .	57 11	27 3	19 8	34 0	34 0	33 6
September .	52 11	27 4	18 5	30 2	33 2	33 1
Quarters ended 1842:—								
Midsummer	61 8	26 9	20 0	32 9	32 2	31 9
Michaelmas	58 1	27 6	19 9	32 9	33 11	33 7

An Account of the Quantities of Foreign and Colonial Wheat and Wheat-Flour Imported, Paid Duty, and Remaining in Warehouse, in each of the Months ending 5th July, August, and September, 1842.—(Continued from p. 233.)

Months ended	WHEAT.			WHEAT-FLOUR.		
	Imported.	Paid Duty.	Remaining in Warehouse at the end of the Month.	Imported.	Paid Duty.	Remaining in Warehouse at the end of the Month.
5th July .	Qrs. 283,406	Qrs. 105,657	Qrs. 1,158,692	Cwts. 91,874	Cwts. 102,713	Cwts. 318,967
5th Aug. .	390,679	286,097	1,260,450	156,959	197,716	273,089
5th Sept. .	819,876	2,095,345	5,772	242,035	498,103	10,573

Quarterly Average of the Weekly Liabilities and Assets of the Bank of England, in the Quarters ending 16th July, 13th August, and 10th September, 1842; and in the corresponding Quarters of the preceding Year.—(Continued from p. 233.)

Quarters ended	LIABILITIES.			ASSETS.		
	Circulation.	Deposits.	Total.	Securities.	Bullion.	Total.
1841.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
20th July...	16,891,000	7,746,000	24,567,000	23,275,000	5,170,000	27,445,000
17th Aug....	17,228,000	7,956,000	25,184,000	23,012,000	5,106,000	28,118,000
14th Sept. ...	17,481,000	8,052,000	25,533,000	23,567,000	4,975,000	28,542,000
1842.						
16th July ...	18,279,000	8,565,000	26,844,000	21,713,000	7,818,000	29,531,000
13th Aug....	18,932,000	9,330,000	28,282,000	22,525,000	8,496,000	31,021,000
10th Sept. ...	19,714,000	9,833,000	29,547,000	23,159,000	9,177,000	32,336,000

Aggregate Amount of Notes circulated in the United Kingdom, distinguishing those of Private and Joint-Stock Banks, with the Amount of Bullion in the Bank of England, during the Four Weeks preceding the 23rd July, 20th August, and 17th September, 1842.—(Continued from p. 233.)

Description of Notes.	During Four Weeks preceding		
	23rd July, 1842.	20th August, 1842.	17th Sept. 1842.
	£.	£.	£.
England—Bank of England .	19,908,000	20,351,000	19,914,000
Private Banks. .	5,166,581	5,150,628	5,098,259
Joint-Stock Banks.	2,939,195	2,823,090	2,819,749
Scotland—Chartered Private & Joint-Stock Banks }	2,715,680	2,674,835	2,648,549
Ireland—Bank of Ireland. .	2,892,775	2,931,750	2,806,025
Private and Joint-Stock Banks . . }	1,680,987	1,632,617	1,663,012
Total . .	35,303,218	35,463,920	34,949,594
Bullion in the Bank of England	8,833,000	9,570,000	9,816,000

An Abstract of the Net Produce of the Revenue of Great Britain, in each of the Years and Quarters ended 5th July, 1841 and 1842.—(Continued from page 232.)

Description.	Years ended 5th July,			
	1841	1842	Increase.	Decrease.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
Customs	19,410,877	19,419,735	33,858	..
Excise	12,613,397	12,559,397	..	54,000
Stamps	6,706,288	6,649,087	..	57,201
Taxes	4,372,319	4,440,162	67,843	..
Post-Office	433,000	539,000	106,000	..
Crown Lands	147,500	180,000	32,500	..
Miscellaneous	104,180	567,327	463,147	..
Imprest and other Monies	345,631	417,236	71,055	..
Repayments of Advances.	538,983	535,456	..	3,527
Total Income . . .	44,672,225	45,337,400	779,903	114,728

Description.	Quarters ended 5th July,			
	1841	1842	Increase.	Decrease.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
Customs	4,848,586	4,422,191	..	426,395
Excise	2,795,312	2,890,100	94,783	..
Stamps	1,680,821	1,698,379	17,558	..
Taxes	2,030,696	2,059,239	28,543	..
Post-Office	119,000	154,000	35,000	..
Crown Lands	30,000	30,000
Miscellaneous	18,235	213,757	195,522	..
Imprest and other Monies	197,985	267,530	69,545	..
Repayments of Advances.	143,540	102,552	..	40,988
Total Income . . .	11,864,175	11,837,748	440,956	467,383

Total Increase on the Year, £665,175: Total Decrease on the Quarter, £26,427.

An Abstract of the Income and Charge of the Consolidated Fund, in each of the Quarters ended 5th of July, 1841 and 1842.—(Continued from p. 232.)

INCOME.			CHARGE.		
Description.	Quarters ended 5th July,		Description.	Quarters ended 5th July,	
	1841	1842		1841	1842
	£.	£.		£.	£.
Customs	4,676,712	4,422,191	Permanent Debt . . .	8,185,079	8,276,950
Excise	2,813,713	2,905,191	Terminable Annuities .	672,357	664,358
Stamps	1,800,821	1,698,379	Interest on Exchequer
Taxes	2,030,696	2,059,239	Bills	29,822	15,160
Post-Office	119,000	154,000	Sinking Fund
Crown Lands	30,000	30,000	Civil List	97,122	97,382
Miscellaneous	18,235	213,757	Other Charges	547,396	489,799
Imprest and other Monies	197,985	267,530	Charge for Advances .	192,550	325,730
Repayments of Advances	143,540	102,552			
Total	11,710,702	11,852,739	Total Charge . . .	9,717,336	9,869,391
Cash applied to pay off Deficiency Bills . . . }	..	200,000	The Surplus	1,993,366	2,183,348
Total	11,710,702	12,052,739	Total	11,710,702	12,052,739

An Abstract of the Net Produce of the Revenue of Great Britain, in each of the Years and Quarters ended the 10th of October, 1841 and 1842.—(Continued from p. 312.)

Description.	Years ended Oct. 10, 1842.			
	1841	1842	Increase.	Decrease.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
Customs	19,485,217	19,656,495	171,278	..
Excise	12,858,014	12,124,566	..	733,448
Stamps	6,687,575	6,547,863	..	139,712
Taxes	4,359,672	4,297,439	..	62,233
Property Tax	313,844	313,844	..
Post Office	426,000	591,000	165,000	..
Crown Lands	153,000	142,000	..	11,000
Miscellaneous	95,123	572,926	477,803	..
Imprest and other Monies	360,487	430,501	70,014	..
Repayments of Advances	488,858	513,293	104,435	..
Total Income . .	44,913,946	45,269,927	1,302,374	946,393

Description.	Quarters ended Oct. 10, 1842.			
	1841	1842	Increase.	Decrease.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
Customs	5,737,217	5,943,977	206,760	..
Excise	4,160,866	3,726,035	..	434,831
Stamps	1,732,704	1,631,430	..	101,224
Taxes	320,160	177,437	..	142,733
Property Tax	313,844	313,844	..
Post-Office	116,000	168,000	52,000	..
Crown Lands	50,500	12,500	..	38,000
Miscellaneous	15,325	20,924	5,599	..
Imprest and other Monies	97,805	111,070	13,265	..
Repayments of Advances	122,374	180,211	57,837	..
Total Income . .	12,352,951	12,285,478	649,305	716,778

An Abstract of the Income and Charge of the Consolidated Fund, in each of the Quarters ended 10th October, 1841 and 1842.—(Continued from p. 312.)

INCOME.			CHARGE.		
Description.	Quarters ended 10th October.		Description.	Quarters ended 10th October.	
	1841	1842		1841	1842
	£.	£.		£.	£.
Customs	4,256,899	4,647,479	Permanent Debt . . .	3,399,173	3,397,968
Excise	4,183,564	3,744,523	Terminable Annuities .	1,372,986	1,373,402
Stamps	1,732,704	1,631,480	Interest on Exchequer
Taxes	390,160	177,437	Bills	38,144	33,449
Property Tax	313,844	Sinking Fund
Post Office	116,000	168,000	Civil List	97,382	97,482
Crown Lands	50,500	12,500	Other Charges	409,166	328,590
Miscellaneous	15,325	20,924	Charge for Advances .	60,000	178,627
Imprest and other Monies	77,805	111,073			
Repayments of Advances	122,374	180,211			
			Total Charge . . .	5,376,851	5,403,513
Cash applied to pay off } Deficiency Bills . . }	10,875,260 150,000	11,007,461 ..	The Surplus . . .	5,648,409	5,603,949
Total . . .	11,025,260	11,007,461	Total . . .	11,025,260	11,007,461

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